

CLARK'S BRIEF GRAMMAR



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Standing of Wendell A. ...
in _____ Class.

187	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
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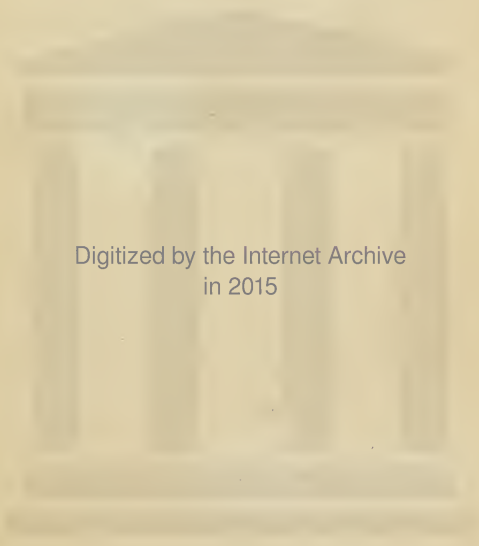
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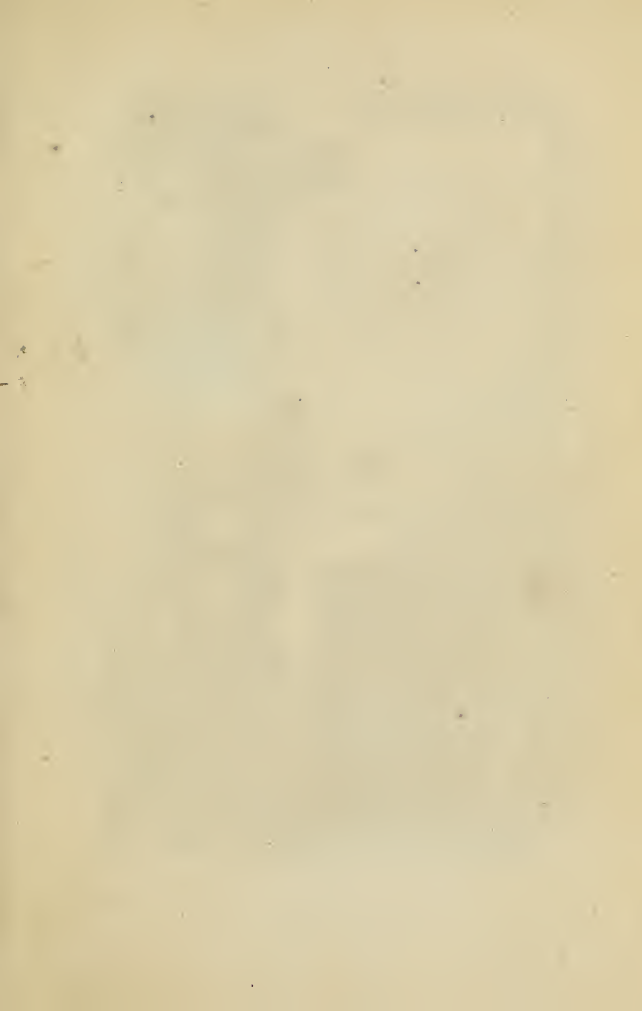


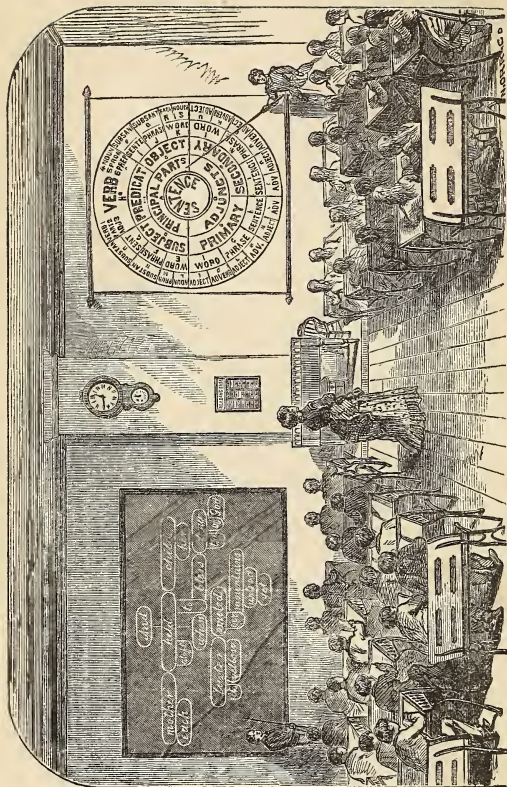


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Mr. Thaddeus Alvord's
book.

Dec. 18, A. D. 187





“And when its yellow luster smiled
O’er mountains yet untrod,

Each mother held aloft her child
To bless the bow of God.”

See pp. 35-41.

NATIONAL SERIES.

A BRIEF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

WITH

ILLUSTRATIONS AND DIAGRAMS.

BY

STEPHEN W. CLARK, A.M.,

AUTHOR OF "THE NORMAL GRAMMAR," "ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE,"
"GRAMMATIC CHART," "KEY TO NORMAL GRAMMAR," ETC.

A. S. BARNES & COMPANY.
NEW YORK & CHICAGO.

1876.

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In view of the established success of this method of teaching Grammar, and its illustration in these pages, it only remains for the publishers to name the books prepared by Prof. S. W. CLARK, on the Diagram Plan.

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P R E F A C E .

“MAMMA, why do you require me to study Grammar? It seems a pretty hard study for a little girl like me.”

“Grammar teaches the right use of language; and you should study it that you may know how to speak and write correctly.”

“But you have said that I do generally speak correctly. I sometimes say ‘*hadn’t ought*,’ for ‘*ought not*’—‘*I done it*,’ for ‘*I did it*’—‘*I would not have went*,’ for ‘*I would not have gone*’—‘every girl brought *their* doll,’ for ‘every girl brought *her* doll.’ These are nearly all the mistakes I have made lately; and if at any time I speak improperly, you can correct me, as you always do.”

“It is true we may learn how to speak and write correctly, by observing how cultivated people speak; that is, we may learn the *Art* of language by *imitation*. But there is a *Science* of language as well as an *Art*. Our *use* of language is based on the *Science*; and you will see the utility and the beauty of the *Science*, when you have learned it.”

“But, mamma, there are so many hard words used in the Grammar books, and so many things I cannot comprehend, that it seems to me I ought not to study Grammar until I am older.”

“Your difficulty arises not so much from the nature of the *Science* as from the usual method of presenting it. I suspect there is something wrong in the books.”—*Evenings at Home*.

What was “wrong in the books” we have endeavored here to make right.

We have made many of the dry technicalities of Grammar give place to simpler expressions of common sense views of a beautiful science.

This book is written for boys and girls—written in the school-room—fitted and tested in class exercises.

We begin—where the child most loves to begin—with Natural Language—Picture Language*—gradually incorporating Word Language

* See cover, exhibiting the triple origin of our Language, and the corresponding progress in civilization of the nations—Anglo-Saxon, Norman, Roman—that con-

—first as teaching the same things as do the pictures*—until at length the pupil has intelligently reached the province of Word Language, which has been made attractive through its association with the beautiful, speaking pictures.

For thirty years it has been the author's

“ Delightful task, to rear the tender thought,
And teach the *young* idea *how* to shoot.”

His recollections of his own boyhood—his life-long companionship of boys—his lively sympathies in their habits of thought and methods of study, have enabled him to select and practice those methods of instruction best adapted to their capacities and tastes.

A good school-book makes the science or the art of which it treats attractive. It should be so fashioned in its statements of principles and facts as most fully to exhibit the beauty, the harmony, and the practicality of the Science.

The introduction of many new subjects of study into our modern common schools, makes the popular demand for BRIEF TEXT-BOOKS necessary. To meet this general demand, only those parts of the science that are of practical importance are put into this book.

Among the best features of this book teachers will recognize—

1st. A simplified Nomenclature and Definitions.

2d. Abundant familiar facts given previous to the statement of Principles and Rules.

3d. An extended system of Diagrams for the Analysis, and Diagrams for the Synthesis of Sentences.

4th. Pictorial illustrations suggestive of the Elements of Sentences and of their modifications.

5th. Careful selection and correction of the more common errors in the use of the Language—SYNTAX and FALSE SYNTAX.

For the benefit of pupils who have not read the author's introductory work—EASY LESSONS IN LANGUAGE—a few pages (9-18), arranged from that book, are placed in this as INTRODUCTORY CONVERSATIONS.

The book contains a condensed yet complete outline of the whole system of Grammar as taught in our schools. It is left for skillful Teachers to fill out the various topics here suggested, or—for more extended studies—to refer their pupils to CLARK'S NORMAL GRAMMAR.

MAPLE GROVE, *Parma, N. Y.*, 1874.

tributed to the force and beauty of our pure English, and to the political, social, and moral elevation of our race.

See pp. 9-12, 34, 45, 63, 73, 81, 89, 125, and others.

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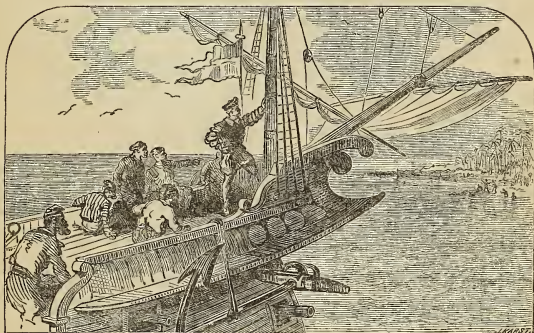
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR FOR BEGINNERS.



INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

CONVERSATIONAL.

America.

That word, standing alone, makes us think of what?

It makes us think of a *Country*.

Why do we think of a country when we see that word?

Because it is the *name* of a country.

America

was discovered

*Of what is something here said?*Something is said of *America*.*What is said of America?**America was discovered.***Columbus.***For what is that word used?*It is used as the *name* of a man.

Columbus

discovered

America

(a)

*Who discovered America?**Columbus* discovered America.*Columbus did what?*He *discovered* America.*What did Columbus discover?*Columbus discovered *America*.

(b)

What word tells who discovered America?

The word "Columbus" tells who discovered America.

What word tells what Columbus did?

The word "discovered" tells what Columbus did.

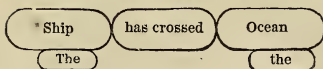
What word tells what Columbus discovered?

The word "America" tells what Columbus discovered.

(c)

*What, then, is the use of the word "Columbus?"*It is used to tell *who* discovered America.*What is the use of the word "discovered?"*It is used to tell what "Columbus" *did*.*What is the use of the word "America?"*It is used to tell *what* Columbus "discovered."

3. The Ship has crossed the Ocean.



What do we talk about here?

We talk about the *ship*.

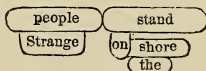
What is said of the ship?

It *has crossed* the ocean.

The ship has crossed what?

The ship has crossed the *Ocean*.

4. Strange people stand on the shore.



What do we talk about here?

We say something of *people*.

What kind of people do we talk about?

We talk about *strange* people.

What is said of "strange people?"

They *stand*.

They stand where?

They stand *on the shore*.

In this sentence for what is the word "people" used?

It is used to tell *who* stand on the shore.

For what is the word "strange" used?

It is used to tell *what sort* of people stand on the shore.

For what is the word "stand" used?

It is used to tell what the people *do*.

For what are the words "on the shore" used?

They are used to tell *where* the "strange people stand."



CONVERSATION II.

Horses Run—Children Play.

Horses

run

What *run*? Who *play*?

Horses run. *Children* play.

Horses do *what*?

Horses *run*.

Did you see any horses in your book?

[Perhaps some pupils say "yes," others say]

We saw *pictures* of horses there.

Do pictures like that always make you think of horses?

We always think of horses when we see such pictures.

* The Teacher will, at discretion, give additional sentences from the cut—thus,

2. Children play.
3. The dog barks.
4. Trees grow.

5. Birds sing.
6. Birds fly.
7. Anna laughs.

All answers in the larger type should be committed to memory.

The thoughts given in the smaller type should be translated into the pupil's own language.

Horses Run.

George may write that sentence on the blackboard.

Now do you see any horses on the blackboard?

We see no horses there.

Do you see any picture of horses there?

We see no horses and no pictures there; we see only the word "horses" there.

Does that word always make you think of horses?

Both the picture and the word make us think of horses.

Then we have at least two kinds of language—*picture language* and *word language*.

What do we call words that make us think of persons or of things?

Words that stand for persons and things are called *names*.

What is a name?

Definition 1. A *name* is a word that represents a *person* or a *thing*.

We will resume this discussion to-morrow.



CONVERSATION III.

William, you may review the lesson of yesterday. *What did we chiefly learn?*

WILLIAM. We learned that we may gain a knowledge of things by looking at pictures of them, and by seeing their names written, or by hearing them spoken. We learned also that the pictures of things differ from the things themselves—that words that make us think of things are the *names* of those things, and that the name of a thing is not the thing itself.

Do you think that pictures of "horses" would suggest the idea of horses to men of all countries?

Every person that had ever seen a horse would think of one when he sees the picture.

Do you think the word written horse, and spoken "horse," would convey the same idea to people in every country?

When people hear the word spoken, or see it written or printed, they will naturally think of that animal.

You say "naturally"—let us see. Do you naturally think of a horse when you see the word Equus? When you see the word Pferd? Or the word Cheval?

Those words have no meaning to us.

But they make *some people* think of a horse.

Then do all people call the same thing by the same name? and if people of different countries use different languages, is our language a Natural or an Artificial language?

Remember 1. Language is any means of expressing thoughts and feelings.

Remember 2. Language is Natural and Artificial.

Remember 3. Natural Language consists in such actions and pictures as convey thoughts.

Remember 4. Artificial Language consists in written words or spoken words that convey thoughts.

Remember 5. All people use the same Natural Language. But each nation has its own distinct Artificial Language.

What people speak the same language that we speak?

The people of England and their descendants.

CONVERSATION IV.

Charles, you may tell us what we learned in the last lesson.

CHARLES. We learned that *pictures* and *actions* represent the same ideas to people of all countries, but that *words* do not. That only those people who have learned a language can use or understand that language. That pictures are *natural* representations, and that words are *artificial*.

Then what language do we use?

We use the *English Language*.

Dog.

What is the use of this word—as it stands alone.

It is used only as the *name* of an animal.

We see, then, that *names* may be used *only as names*—without using them in making statements.

The Dog Barks.



Now what additional use has the word “dog”?

It is here used to tell *what barks*.

Is the word “barks” a name?

That word is not a name; for it does not give us the idea of a *thing* but of an *act*.

For what then is the word “barks” used in this sentence?

It is used to tell what the dog *does*.

You may give other words that say something or declare something of the dog.

The dog runs—the dog chases the horses—the dog frightens the horses.

OBSERVATION.—We have now seen that words are used for different purposes—that some are used as *names*, others are used to *declare* something. Hence

We have $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Naming Words and} \\ \text{Declaring Words.} \end{array} \right.$

Remember—Naming words are called *Nouns*.

Remember—Words used to declare something are called *Verbs*.

What words are called nouns?

Definition 2. All names of persons or of things are called *nouns*.

EXAMPLES.—Sun, moon, stars, world, man, woman, boy, girl, ship, town, ocean, house, book, teacher, pupil, school, education, intellect, thought, reason, desire, affection—all are *nouns* because they are all *names*.

Can we see all the things that we name?

We can think of many things that we cannot see.

Mention ten things that cannot be seen, nor felt—things that are not composed of matter.

1. Joy; 2. Grief; 3. Thoughts; 4. ———; 5. ———; 6. ———; 7. ———; 8. ———; 9. ———; 10. ———.

CONVERSATION V.

Remember 1. A word is not often used alone. It is usually combined with some other word or words to make with them a declaration.

Remember 2. Persons and things—material and immaterial—are represented by their names. These names are *nouns*. Actions are declared by *verbs*. When the noun and the verb are so combined that the verb declares some act or event of the person or thing, the noun and the verb assert a *Proposition*, and the words used to declare the proposition constitute a *Sentence*.

What is a Proposition?

Definition 3. A *Proposition* is a “thought expressed in language.”*

What is a Sentence?

Definition 4. A *Sentence* is a “combination of words which is complete as expressing a thought.”*

Children Play. [See the picture, p. 12.]

Children

play

This Proposition is in the *thought*—as really expressed by the *picture* as by the words.

But

The *words*, thus selected and placed, make the *Sentence*.

* See Webster's Dictionary.

What is the naming word?

What is the declaring word?

Birds

fly

Is this a sentence?

Why do you call it a sentence?

What is the noun?

Why do you call the word "birds" a noun?

What is the verb?

Why do you call the word "fly" a verb?

Let the pupil place appropriate *Verbs* to the following *Nouns* :

Albert —.	Birds —.	Clouds —.	Ducks —.
Ellen —.	Farmers —.	Grapes —.	Horses —.
Irene —.	Kings —.	Ladies —.	Men —.
Newton —.	Owls —.	Parents —.	Quails —.

Let the pupil prefix appropriate *Nouns* to the following *Verbs* :

— studies.	— sing.	— float.	— swim.
— teaches.	— mow.	— hang.	— run.
— loves.	— rule.	— talk.	— work.
— discovered.	— hoot.	— imitate.	— fly.

The Teacher will extend these exercises at pleasure.

Rabbits Eat Clover.

Rabbits

eat

clover

Why do you call this a sentence? [See "Definition."]

What do we talk about in this sentence?

We talk about *rabbits*.

What do we say of rabbits?

Rabbits *eat*.

Rabbits eat what?

Rabbits eat *clover*.

In this sentence

For what is the word "rabbits" used?

It is used to tell *what* "eat clover."

For what is the word "eat" used?

It is used to tell *what* "rabbits" *do*.

For what is the word "clover" used?

It is used to tell *what* "rabbits eat."

Thus analyze and place in the same diagram the following

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES.

2. Anna gathers flowers.

6. Cows eat grass.

3. Ernest studies grammar.

7. Rabbits dig holes.

4. Clara writes letters.

8. Boys study Latin.

5. William drives horses.

9. Camels carry loads.

Why are all these called Sentences?

Repeat the definition of a Sentence.

Tell which words are Nouns.

Tell which words are Verbs.

ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.*

The Subject.

Remember—When an assertion is made, it is made of some person or thing; and the word which gives name to that person or thing is called the *Subject* of the Sentence.

What is the Subject of a Sentence?

Definition 5. The *Subject* of a Sentence is that of which something is asserted.

EXAMPLES.

Birds.

Birds fly.

The *boy* runs.

Fishes.

Fishes swim.

The *bird* sings.

Horses.

Horses run.

The *sun* shines.

Children.

Children play.

The *wind* blows.

* An *Element* is one of the parts of which anything is composed.

Why are these called Sentences?

What "fly?"

What is said of "birds?"

What "swim?"

What is said of "fishes?"

What are the Subjects of these Sentences?

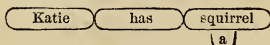
What "Part of Speech" do we employ as the Subjects of Sentences?

A word which is the Subject of a Sentence must be a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*.

You may all tell us what words are *Nouns*.

In the next Lesson we will learn what a *Pronoun* is.

1. Katie has a Squirrel.



2. She feeds it.

In the first sentence,

Why is the word "Katie" a noun?

What sort of word is "squirrel?"

In the second sentence,

What does the word "she" mean?

Does the word "she" always mean Katie?

What does the word "it" mean?

Does that word always mean squirrel?

Make a sentence,

In which the word "she" means Clara, and the word "it" means kitten.

We now see that one word is sometimes used *instead of another*—to denote the same person or thing: and that it may perform the same office in a Sentence, and Grammarians have agreed to call any word that *stands for* a Noun—a *Pronoun*.

What words are Pronouns?

Definition 6. Words used instead of Nouns are *Pronouns*.

What words are commonly used as Pronouns?

I. *him.*

I saw him.

Thou. *me.*

Thou sawest me.

He. *her.*

He saw her.

<i>She.</i>	<i>it.</i>	She saw it.
<i>We.</i>	<i>them.</i>	We saw them.
<i>They.</i>	<i>us.</i>	They saw us.
<i>Who.</i>	<i>thee.</i>	Who saw thee?
<i>You.</i>	<i>whom.</i>	You saw whom?
<i>Which</i> was it?	<i>What</i> was it?	<i>That</i> was the one.

EXERCISES.

Let each pupil use the Pronouns *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they*, each as the Subject of a Sentence.

The Predicate.

Remember—In all Sentences something is declared of the Subject; and to declare, means to *predicate*. Then

What is the Predicate of a Sentence?

Definition 7. The *Predicate* of a Sentence is the word or words that make the assertion.

EXAMPLES.

Boy runs.

What is said of "boy?"

What, then, is the Predicate of this Sentence?

Why do you call that word the Predicate?

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 2. <i>Sing.</i> | Birds sing. | 6. The boy runs. |
| 3. <i>Play.</i> | Children play. | 7. The bird sings. |
| 4. <i>Studies.</i> | John studies. | 8. The sun shines. |
| 5. <i>Study.</i> | We study. | 9. The wind blows. |

What are the Predicates of these Sentences?

What "Parts of Speech" do we use in Predicate?

1. Every Predicate must have a *Verb*.

1. Boys *play*.



2. We study.

3. Clara sings.

2. A Predicate may have *two Verbs*.

4. Boys *can play*.*

Boys

can play

5. We *do study*.

6. She *should sing*.

3. A Predicate may consist of a *Verb* and a *Participle*.

7. Boys *are playing*.

Boys

are playing

8. We *were studying*.

9. She *is singing*.

4. A Predicate may consist of a *Verb* and an *Adjective*.

10. Boys *are playful*.

Boys

are playful

11. We *were studious*.

12. She *is musical*.

5. A Predicate may consist of a *Verb* and a *Noun*.

13. Boys *are players*.

Boys

are players

14. We *were students*.

15. She *is a singer*.

When we write sentences, where do we place the Predicate?

We commonly place the Predicate after the Subject.

Let each pupil in the class make a Sentence, and tell which is the *Subject*, and which is the *Predicate*.

* When two or more Verbs are in the same Predicate, the former Verb is called an *Auxiliary Verb*.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupil point out the *Subject* of each Sentence—giving the proper reason for its being called the Subject.

Let the pupil name the *Predicate* of each Sentence, and the reason for its being called the Predicate.

1. Boys study.
3. Girls sing.
5. Mountains decay.
7. Nature moved.
9. Sound returns.
11. Ships appear.
13. Birds sang.
15. Murmur rose.

2. Ducks swim.
4. Geese gabble.
6. Oaks fall.
8. Valleys rejoice.
10. Bards rested.
12. Rays gleamed.
14. Bees hummed.
16. Sound arose.

17. Arches have fallen.
19. Temples have sunk.
21. Voice was heard.
23. Day has ended.
25. Room is darkened.
27. Stream is gliding.
29. Friends are gathering.
31. Words are finished.
33. Thou shalt be punished.
35. Velvet feels smooth.
37. Appearances are deceitful.
39. Roses are fragrant.
41. Lilies are beautiful.
43. We have been happy.†
45. James has become rich.‡

18. Columns have crumbled.
20. Ages have passed.
22. Harp was strung.
24. Arrow has passed.
26. Lattice is opened.
28. Time is coming.
30. Deer are bounding.
32. Lamps are flickering.
34. We have been afflicted.*
36. Sugar is sweet.
38. Honey is sweeter.
40. Wisdom is desirable.
42. Falsehood is disgraceful.
44. John has been idle.†
46. William has become wise.‡

47. Words are things.
49. Victoria is queen.
51. Thou art Peter.
53. They should have been friends.‡

48. We are friends.
50. Washington was president.
52. We are Romans.
54. We may have been rivals.‡

* A Verb and two Participles in Predicate.

† A Verb, a Participle, and an Adjective.

‡ Two Verbs, a Participle, and a Noun.

Remember—Every Sentence must have at least two parts—

The *Subject* and the *Predicate*.

Remember—Some Verbs in Predicate declare acts which terminate on *Objects*.

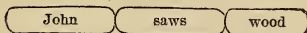
The Object.

What is the Object of a Sentence?

Definition 8. The *Object* of a Sentence is that on which the *act* expressed by the Predicate terminates.

EXAMPLES.

1. John saws wood. Saws what?



What, then, is the Object of this Sentence?

2. Boys study grammar. Study what?
 3. William writes letters. Writes what?
 4. Arthur picks berries.
 5. Cora makes bread.

What are the Objects of these Sentences?

What "Part of Speech" do we use as the Object of a Sentence?

A word which is the Object of a Sentence must be a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*.

EXAMPLES.

The Object a *Noun* 1. Virtue secures *happiness*.

2. Wisdom elevates *man*.

3. Cæsar conquered *Gaul*.

The Object a *Pronoun* 4. William assisted *me*.

5. I thanked *him*.

6. Teachers instruct *us*.

7. Mary invited *her*.

When we make Transitive Sentences, where do we place the Objects?

We commonly place the Object after the Predicate.

Let each pupil in the class make a Sentence, and tell which word is the *Object*.

Model for Analysis and Parsing.

1. Virtue secures happiness.

This is a Sentence, because it "asserts a complete proposition."

The *Subject* "Virtue," a Noun.

The *Predicate* "Secures," a Verb.

The *Object* "Happiness," a Noun.

Thus analyze and parse the other Sentences.

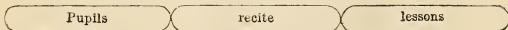
Adjuncts.

Remember—A *Sentence* is a structure—something built—not of wood nor of iron, but of *words*. It is the habitation of a thought—the embodiment of a proposition.

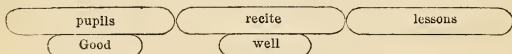
We have seen [p. 23] that a Sentence has parts—that every Sentence *must have* a *Subject* and a *Predicate*—that it *may have* an *Object*.

These parts we call *Principal Elements*—they make the "unqualified assertion."

But a Sentence may have other parts.



This is an "unqualified assertion"—made by a Subject, a Predicate, and an Object.



2. Good pupils recite lessons well.

3. Idle pupils recite lessons imperfectly.

These are "qualified assertions." They tell us *what* pupils recite lessons well, and *what* pupils recite lessons imperfectly. They also tell us *how* "good pupils" recite lessons, and *how* "idle pupils" recite lessons. Hence

Remember—Those words in a Sentence that limit or modify other parts are called

Adjunct Elements.

What words are Adjuncts?

Definition 11. Words used to qualify, to limit, or to modify other words, are called *Adjuncts*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *All* fishes swim. What fishes?
2. *Most* birds fly. What birds?
3. Some birds sing *sweetly*. What birds? Sing how?
4. Diligent boys generally have good lessons.
5. Many parents properly educate their children.

Why is "*some*" an *Adjunct*?

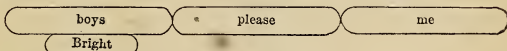
Why is "*sweetly*" an *Adjunct*?

What other *Adjuncts* in these Sentences?

Remember—Different *Adjuncts* may limit the *Subject*, the *Predicate*, or the *Object* of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

Adjunct of the Subject 1. Bright boys please me.



What *boys please me*?

What is the *Adjunct* in this Sentence?

Why do you call "*bright*" an *Adjunct*?

2. Indolent boys displease me.

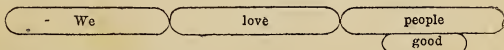
Adjunct of the Predicate 3. Stars shine brightly.



What, then, is the *Adjunct* of this Sentence?

4. William rises early.

Adjunct of the Object 5. We love good people.



Love what kind of *people*?

6. Warner has found my knife.

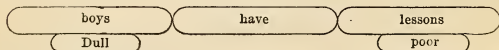
Adjunct of the Subject and the Predicate—

7. Benevolent people always prosper.



8. Little children sometimes study.
 9. Our teacher will return soon.
 10. That boy does not study.

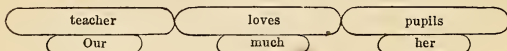
The Subject and the Object. 11. Dull boys have poor lessons.



12. Early showers bring early flowers.

The Subject, the Predicate, and the Object—

13. Our teacher loves her pupils much.

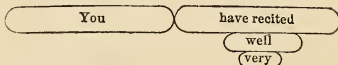


13. Each mother held aloft her child.

*Remember—*Adjuncts are sometimes attached to other Adjuncts.

EXAMPLES.

1. You have recited very well.



How did you recite?

Why do you call "well" an Adjunct of "recited?"

"You have recited well." How well?

What is the office of the word "very?"

2. John came too late. *How late?*

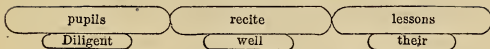
What is the use of the word too?

3. Jane has been remarkably diligent. *How diligent?*

4. Mr. B. has accumulated two hundred thousand dollars.

EXERCISES.

Diligent pupils recite their lessons well.



(a)

Of whom is something here asserted?

Something is said of "*pupils.*"

What is said of pupils?

Pupils *recite*.

Pupils recite what?

Pupils recite *lessons*.

What pupils recite lessons?

Diligent pupils recite lessons.

Diligent pupils recite whose lessons?

Diligent pupils recite *their* lessons.

Diligent pupils recite *their* lessons how?

Diligent pupils recite their lessons *well*.

(b)

In this sentence, what is the use or office of the word "*diligent*?"

It is used to tell *what* pupils recite their lessons well.

What is the use of the word "*pupils*?"

It is used to tell *who* recite lessons.

What is the use of the word "*recite*?"

It is used to tell what diligent pupils *do*.

What is the use of the word "*their*?"

It is used to tell *whose* lessons pupils recite.

What is the use of the word "*lessons*?"

It is used to tell *what* good pupils recite.

What is the use of the word "*well*?"

It is used to tell *how* good pupils recite their lessons.

* To THE TEACHER.—Some pupils may not clearly understand the import of such questions. The office of any word in a sentence can be best exhibited to such stu-

What is the Subject of this Sentence?

Why do you call "pupils" the Subject?

What part of speech is the word "pupils?"

Why do you call the word a Noun?

What is the Predicate of the Sentence?

Why do you call the word "recite" the Predicate?

What part of speech is the word "recite?"

Why do you call that word a Verb?

What is the Object of this Sentence?

Why do you call "lessons" the Object?

What part of speech do you call the word "lessons?"

Why do you call that word a Noun?

What are the Adjuncts of this Sentence?

Why do you call "diligent" an Adjunct of "pupils?"

Why do you call "their" an Adjunct of "lessons?"

Why do you call "well" an Adjunct of "recite?"

Thus analyze the following

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES

adapted to the same Diagram:

2. Many *people* often *visit* the *school*.
3. Some *teachers* never *punish* their *pupils*.
4. Young *children* sometimes *study* English *Grammar*.
5. Small *streams* often *produce* great *rivers*.
6. Good *people* always *secure* our *esteem*.
7. Truant *boys* seldom *recite* good *lessons*.
8. Vicious *people* generally *corrupt* their *associates*.
9. Benevolent *people* commonly *pity* the *needy*.
10. Good *example* never *injures* any *one*.

Let the pupil point out the Adjuncts in the following Sentences, and distinguish Adjuncts of the *Predicates* from those of the *Subjects* and of the *Objects*.

1. *That amiable young lady* attended the lecture.
2. *The mountains* showed their *gray heads*.

dents by your asking such a question as will require the use of that word as the proper answer. Thus, *What pupils recite well?* The obvious answer is, "*diligent*" [pupils]. Hence the office of the word "*diligent*" is to tell *what* pupils recite well. *How* do diligent pupils recite? Ans. *Well*. Therefore "*well*" is an Adjunct of "*recite*."

3. *A golden staff his steps supported.*
4. *The old man raised his head.*
5. *The young student possessed a well-balanced mind.*
6. *He heard the king's command.*
7. *He saw that writing's truth.*
8. *No ordinary ambition will thus control good men.*
9. *Then shall man's pride and dullness comprehend
His action's, passion's, being's use and end.*

RECAPITULATION.

What are Elements of a Sentence?

Definition 12. The *Elements of a Sentence* are those distinct parts which enter into its structure, and which, together, form the Sentence.

How many sorts of Elements are there in a Sentence?

A Sentence *must* have *Principal Elements*, and it *may* have *Adjunct Elements*.

What are the Principal Elements of a Sentence?

Definition 13. The *Principal Elements* of a Sentence are those words which make the unqualified assertion.

The Principal Elements consist of what?

The *Subject*, the *Predicate*, and the *Object* are called *Principal Elements*.

What are Adjunct Elements?

Definition 14. The *Adjunct Elements* of a Sentence are such as describe or modify other Elements.

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS—*Adjective—Adverbial.*

Good boys study well.

What is the Subject of this Sentence?

Why do you call "boys" the Subject?

What is the Predicate of this Sentence?

Why do you call "study" the Predicate?

What word tells what boys "study well?"

What word tells how "good boys" study?

What, then, is the difference in the uses of the words "good" and "well?"

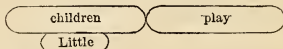
"Good" describes "boys"—tells *what kind* of boys.
 "Well" modifies "study"—tells *how* they study.

Remember 1. Words that describe *persons* and *things* are called
Adjectives.

2. Words that modify *actions* are called
Adverbs.

EXERCISES ON *Adjective Adjuncts.*

1. *Little children play.*



What *children* *play*?

Why do you call "*little*" an *Adjunct* of "*children*?"

What sort of word is "*children*?"

Why do you call it a Noun? See Definition, p. 15.

What sort of word is "*little*?"

Why do you call it an Adjective?

Let each pupil place in the *same Diagram*, and analyze one of the following

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

2. *Good* boys study.

4. *Vicious* boys quarrel.

3. *Cheerful* children play.

5. *Some* birds sing.

6. *Some* children are happy.

7. *Our* parents are kind. *Whose* parents?

8. *John's* book is new. *Whose* book?

9. Children's shoes are small. What shoes?

10. Pure patriotism should be rewarded.

11. Honest intentions should be respected.

12. Benevolent people will be honored.

13. *Seven* men were called wise.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram, and tell which words are Adjectives.

Adverbial Adjuncts.

14. Stars shine *brightly*.



Stars shine—how?

Why do you call "stars" the Subject?

Why do you call "shine" the Predicate?

Why do you call "brightly" an Adjunct?

What sort of word is "shine?"

Why do you call it a Verb? See p. 15.

What sort of word is "brightly?"

Why do you call it an Adverb?

Let the class place in *the same Diagram*, and thus analyze the following

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

15. Horses run *swiftly*.

16. Birds sing *sweetly*.

17. John studies *well*.

18. Cora plays often.

19. We recite daily.

20. Grandmother knits constantly.

21. John will come *here*.

22. We shall recite soon.

23. People should live temperately.

24. *Where* did William go?

25. *When* do we recite?

26. *Whither* shall I flee?

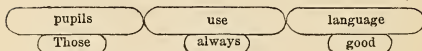
Let each pupil *make* a Sentence adapted to the *same Diagram*, and tell which words are Adverbs.

RECAPITULATION.

A Sentence consists of	{	Principal Elements,	{	The Subject,
		And it may have		The Predicate,
		Adjunct Elements,		The Object.
			{	Adjectives
				and
			{	Adverbs.

EXERCISES—ADJUNCTS—*Adjective—Adverbial.*

27. Those pupils always use good language.



Why do you call this a Sentence?

Because it is a group of words that make complete sense.

Analysis.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The Subject "Pupils," a Noun.
		The Predicate "Use," a Verb.
		The Object "Language," a Noun.
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	Of the Subject "Those," an Adjective.
		Of the Predicate "Always," an Adverb.
		Of the Object "Good," an Adjective.

Parsed.

"Those" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct Element.

Word.

Adjective.

"Pupils" is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Subject.

Word.

Noun.

"Always" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct Element.

Word.

Adverb.

"Use" is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Predicate.

Verb.

"Good" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct Element.

Word.

Adjective.

"Language" is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Object.

Word.

Noun.

Thus analyze and parse the following

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES.

28. *Dull* boys *seldom* have *good* lessons.
29. Evil communications always corrupt good manners.
30. Idle habits never produce good results.
31. Good examples generally secure correct habits.
32. Little people have sometimes studied English Grammar.
33. Ignorant men cannot command extensive influence.
34. Earthly fame does not secure immortal joys.
35. Ambitious men should properly direct their ambition.

Why do we call "ambitious" an Adjective?

Why do you call "properly" an Adverb?

Why do you call "their" an Adjective?

Let each pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same *Diagram*.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupils point out the *Principal* Elements in the following Sentences; and tell,

1. *Which is the Subject, and why?*
2. *Which is the Predicate, and why?*
3. *Which is the Object, and why?*

1. The anchor | holds | the ship.
2. Virtue | bestows | tranquillity.
3. Hope | cheers | the husbandman.
4. The bee | loves | flowers.

5. The wind | drives | the clouds.
6. The young man | must acquire | fortune.
7. The old man | must enjoy | it.
8. A great multitude | had assembled there.
9. Poor men | generally have | little credit.
10. Good men | always secure | much esteem.
11. No man can serve two masters.
12. Brutus abrogated the authority of *his colleague*.
13. The minister loves little children.
14. The new academy is well built.
15. The garden now contains many flowers.
16. The ship sailed very swiftly.
17. Charlotte plays the piano finely.
18. The student contributed twenty dollars.

Now point out

1. The Adjective Adjuncts.
2. The Adverbial Adjuncts.

Synopsis of the Sentence.

What is a Sentence?

Repeat the Definition.

What are the essential parts of a Sentence?

What is the Subject of a Sentence?

What is the Predicate of a Sentence?

Make a Sentence having a Subject and a Predicate.

What sort of Sentence is that which has only a Subject and a Predicate?

What other parts may a Sentence have?

What is the Object of a Sentence?

What sort of Sentence is that which has a Subject, a Predicate, and an Object? [See p. 42.]

Make a Sentence having a Subject, a Predicate, and an Object.

What sort of word must the Subject be?

The word in Predicate must be of what sort?

What other words may be in Predicate?

What sort of word must the Object be?

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.



And when its yellow lustre smiled
 O'er mountains yet untrod,
 Each *mother held* aloft her *child*
 To bless the bow of God.

FIRST MODEL OF ANALYSES.

(a)

Who *did something*?

“*Mother*” *did something*.

Mother *did what*?

Mother held.

Mother held *what*?

Mother held child.

What *mother held child*?

Each mother held child.

Each mother held *whose child*?

Each mother held her child.

Each mother held her child—where?

Each mother held aloft her child.

Each mother held aloft her child—when?

When its yellow lustre smiled.

Each mother held aloft her child—wherefore?

To bless the bow of God.

(b)

What is the use of the word “mother?”

It is used to tell *who* held child.

What is the use of the word “held?”

It is used to tell what the mother *did*.

What is the use of the word “child?”

It is used to tell *what* the mother held.

What is the use of the word “each?”

It is used to tell *what* mother held child.

What is the use of the word “aloft?”

It is used to tell *where* each mother held her child.

What is the use of the word “her?”

It is used to tell *whose* child each mother held.

What is the use of the Sentence “when its yellow lustre smiled?”

It is used to tell *when* each mother held aloft her child.

What is the use of the Phrase “to bless the bow of God?”

It is used to tell *why* “each mother held aloft her child.”*

SECOND MODEL.

This SECOND MODEL may be placed on the blackboard or on slates—thus:

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The Subject	“Mother.”
		The Predicate	“Held.”
		The Object	“Child.”
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	Of the Subject	“Each.”
		Of the Predicate	{ “When its yellow lustre smiled o’er mountains yet untrod,” and “Aloft,” and “To bless the bow of God.”
		Of the Object	“Her.”

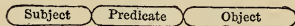
* By this method of Analysis the labor is with the teacher. He must exercise his skill in forming his questions properly. Any pupil who can read, and understand

DIAGRAMS.

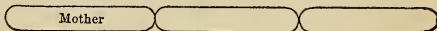
Diagrams are figures so arranged that the Elements of Sentences may be placed apart from one another—and in such position that their *offices* and *relations* may be indicated.

RULES FOR THEIR USE.

Rule I. The Principal Elements of a Sentence are placed on the same horizontal line. Thus:

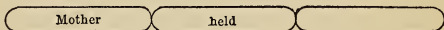


Rule II. The *Subject* is placed first. Thus:



Who *did something*?

Rule III. The *Predicate* is placed to the right of the Subject—attached. Thus:



Mother did what?

Why do we place "held" to the right of "mother"?

what he reads, can answer the questions without much previous study. Any occasional blunder on the part of a pupil will not damage the class. Thus, suppose a pupil fails to answer a question in Exercise (b)—“What is the use of the word “child?” The teacher goes back to Exercise (a), and says, “Read the Sentence.” “Mother held *what*?” The pupil cannot do anything easier than to say “child.”

TEACHER. “Now *what use* did you make of the word *child*?”

PUPIL. “I used that word to tell you *what* each mother held.”

TEACHER. *Each mother held whose child?*

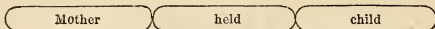
PUPIL. Each mother held *her* child.

TEACHER. *For what did you use the word “her?”*

PUPIL. “I used it to tell *whose* child each mother held.”

By thus combining Exercises (a) and (b), the teacher will soon have satisfactory answers from the dullest of his pupils.

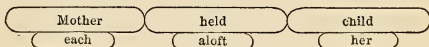
Rule IV. The *Object* is placed to the right of the Predicate. Thus:



Mother held what?

Why do we place "child" to the right of "held?"

Rule V. Adjuncts are placed beneath the words which they modify. Thus:



Which mother? Held where? Whose child?

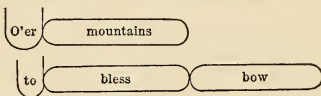
Why do we place "which" beneath "mother?"

Why do we place "aloft" beneath "held?"

Why do we place "her" beneath "child?"

Rule VI. Of Phrases, the *Leader* is placed first, and the subsequent to the right of the Leader—attached. Thus:

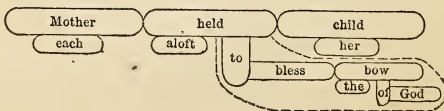
The Leader. The Subsequent.



Why do we place "mountains" to the right of "o'er?"

Why do we place "bow" to the right of "bless?"

Rule VII. An *Adjunct Phrase* is placed beneath the word which it modifies. Thus:



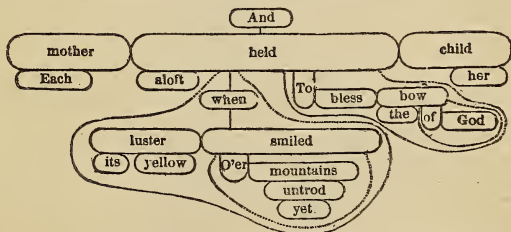
Why do we place "to bless the bow of God" beneath "held?"

Because that Phrase is an Adjunct of "held;" it tells *wherefore* "each mother held aloft her child."

Why do we place the Phrase "of God" beneath "bow?"

Because it is an Adjunct of "bow;" it tells *whose* bow.

Rule VIII. An Adjunct Sentence is placed beneath the word which it limits. Thus:



Why do we place "when its yellow lustre smiled o'er mountains yet untrod" beneath "held?"

Because that Sentence is an Adjunct of "held;" it tells *when* "each mother held aloft her child."

Why do we place "its" and "yellow" beneath "lustre?"

Because they are Adjuncts of "lustre;" "its" tells *whose* "lustre," and "yellow" tells *what kind of* "lustre."

Why do we place "o'er mountains yet untrod" beneath "smiled?"

Because that Phrase is an Adjunct of "smiled;" it tells *where* "lustre smiled."

Why do we place "untrod" beneath "mountains?"

Because it is an Adjunct of "mountains;" it tells *what* "mountains" by denoting *their condition*.

Why do we place "yet" beneath "untrod?"

Because it is an Adjunct of "untrod"—telling *when*.

Rule IX. A *Conjunction* used to introduce a Sentence is placed above the Sentence,—attached to its Predicate by a line. [See “And” and “When” in Diagram above.]

A Conjunction used to connect words is placed *between the words connected*.

OBSERVATION.—Exclamations and words of Euphony having no connection with other words, stand apart—are not placed in Diagram.

As “Parsing” has its foundation in Analyses, I suggest the following as the best

MODEL FOR PARSING.

“And” introduces the Sentence a Conjunction.

“When its yellow lustre
smiled o’er mountains
yet untrod” } is an Element in the sentence.

Adjunct Element.

Sentence.

Adverbial.

Modifies “held”—*as to time*.

“Each” is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct.

Word.

Adjective.

Limits “mother”—tells *which*.

“Mother” is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Subject.

Word.

Noun.

“Held” is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Predicate.

Verb.

"Aloft" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct.

Word.

Adverb.

Modifies "held"—*as to place*.

"Her" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct.

Word.

Adjective.

Limits "child."

"Child" is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Object.

Word.

Noun.

"To bless the bow of God" is an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct.

Phrase.

Adverbial.

Modifies "held" * —tells *wherefore*.

Let the pupils analyze and place in appropriate Diagrams the Sentences on pp. 28-9. Then

Let the Sentences be parsed by the above MODEL.

* This MODEL of Analysis and Parsing resolves the above Sentence into nine distinct parts:

1. A Conjunction used to introduce the Sentence.
2. An Adverbial Sentence used to modify the Predicate.
3. An Adjective word used to limit the Subject.
4. The Subject word.
5. The Predicate word.
6. An Adverbial word used to modify the Predicate.
7. An Adjectival word used to limit the Object.
8. The Object.
9. An Adverbial Phrase used to modify the Predicate.

The Analyses of the *Auxiliary Sentence*, and of the *Phrases* involved in the Sentence, should not be required of pupils in this stage of their progress.

Models for ULTIMATE ANALYSIS will be given further on. [See pp. 151-54.]

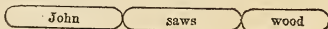
Classes of Sentences.

A Sentence is { *Transitive, Intransitive, or Mixed.*
Simple, Compound, or Complex.
Principal or Auxiliary.

Definition 15 (a). A *Transitive Sentence* has one or more Subjects, one or more Predicates; and one or more Objects.

EXAMPLES.

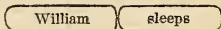
1. John saws wood.



2. Industry promotes health.

Definition 15 (b). An *Intransitive Sentence* has one or more Subjects, and one or more Predicates, but no Object.

1. William sleeps.



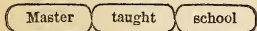
2. Mary is cheerful.

Definition 15 (c). A *Simple Sentence* has but one Subject and one Predicate—with or without one Object.

EXAMPLES.



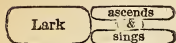
A Simple Sentence—Intransitive.



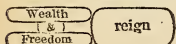
A Simple Sentence—Transitive.

Definition 15 (d). A *Compound Sentence* has more than one Subject, or Predicate, or Object.

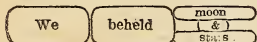
EXAMPLES.



A Compound Sentence—Intransitive.
 One Subject—two Predicates.



A Compound Sentence—Intransitive.
 Two Subjects—one Predicate.



A Compound Sentence—Transitive.
 Two Objects.

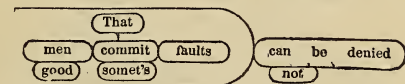
Definition 15 (e). A Sentence is sometimes used as an Element—*Subject, Object, or Adjunct*—of another Sentence. Such are called *Auxiliary Sentences*.

THE OFFICES OF AUXILIARY SENTENCES.

1. An Auxiliary Sentence may be the *Subject* of a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. "That good men often commit faults cannot be denied."



2. *That all men are created equal* is a self-evident truth.

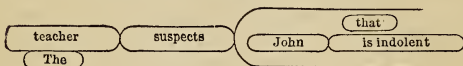
What is a *self-evident truth*?

Make a Sentence whose *Subject* shall be a *Sentence*.

2. An Auxiliary Sentence may be the *Object* of a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

3. The Teacher suspects *that John is indolent*.



Suspects what?

Make a Sentence whose *Object* shall be a Sentence.

Definition 18. A Sentence used as the Subject or the Object of a Sentence is a *Substantive Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

Subject Sentence—4. "I cannot has never accomplished anything."

5. "I will try has done wonders."

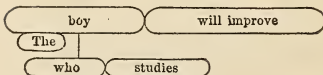
Object Sentence—6. He knoweth not *That the dead are there*.

7. Agrippa said unto Paul *Almost thou persuadeth me to be a Christian*.

3. An Auxiliary Sentence may be an *Adjunct* of the *Subject* of a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

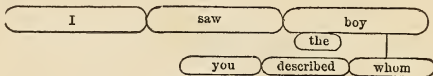
8. The boy *who studies* will improve.



What *boy will improve*?

Make a Sentence whose Subject shall be modified by a Sentence.

4. An Auxiliary Sentence may be an Adjunct of the Object of another Sentence.



What "*boy*?"

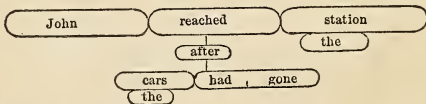
Make a Sentence whose Object shall be qualified by a Sentence.

Definition 19. A Sentence used as an Adjunct of a Noun or of a Pronoun is an *Adjective Sentence*.

5. An Auxiliary Sentence may be an Adjunct of the *Predicate* of a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

9. John reached the station *after the cars had gone*.



Reached the station—when?

Definition 20. A Sentence used as an Adjunct of a Verb or of an Adjective is called an *Adverbial Sentence*.

Why do we call the Sentence "after the cars had gone," an Adverbial Sentence.

OBS. 1.—All Sentences not Auxiliary are called *Principal Sentences*.

OBS. 2.—A Principal Sentence with an Auxiliary Sentence constitute a *Complex Sentence*. (See pp. 43-4.)



STEPHEN has a little wagon.

One wheel has come off.

How many wheels does a wagon have?

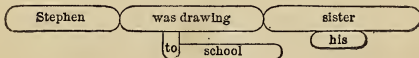
What other parts has a wagon?—name them all.

Is a spoke a part of a wagon?

A spoke is a part of a wheel ;
but a wheel is a part of a wagon.



Stephen was drawing his sister to school.



Where was he drawing his sister?

He was drawing her *to school*.

Does the word "to," used alone, tell where he was drawing his sister?

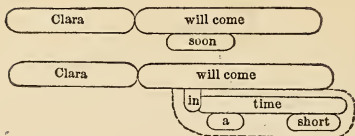
Does the word "school" tell where?

What, then, does tell where he was drawing her?

The two words "*to school*," used together, tell where.

Then we see that *two or more words united* perform an office different from either of them used separately. Such a combination of words makes a *Phrase*.*

* So the wheel, that Stephen has lost from his wagon, is a part of the wagon, and he must replace it to make the wagon complete. Yet the wheel itself is made of other parts—*hub, felloes, and spokes*—which cannot be used as a part of the wagon *until they are first put together* in the form of a wheel. Hence we see that a *Phrase* is to a *Sentence* what a *wheel* is to a *wagon*—a part made up of other parts—*of use only when these parts are combined*.



1. Clara will come—*when*?

Clara will come *soon*.

In this Sentence, what is the use of the word “soon?”

It is used to tell *when* Clara will come.

Then the word “soon” is an Adjunct of “will come.”

What sort of an Adjunct is the word “soon?”

Why do you call it an “Adverbial Adjunct?”

Because it modifies the Verb “will come.”

What is the meaning of the word “soon?”

The word “*soon*” means *in a short time*.

Then the two Sentences—

Clara will come *soon*, and

Clara will come *in a short time*,

are equivalent Sentences—they mean the same thing. But the Word “soon” is an “Adverbial Adjunct.” Therefore the Phrase “in a short time” is an Adverbial Adjunct.

Thus we see that in the Analyses of Sentences, Phrases should be parsed just as their equivalent words are parsed.*

* In English, some Phrases have their equivalent words, and some have not.

EXAMPLES.

The Phrase	<i>At this time,</i>	has its equivalent word	<i>Now.</i>
“ “	<i>In this place,</i>	“ “ “	<i>Here.</i>
“ “	<i>Towards home,</i>	“ “ “	<i>Homeward.</i>
“ “	<i>The will of the people,</i>	“ “ “	<i>The people’s will.</i>
“ “	<i>Caps for boys,</i>	“ “ “	<i>Boys’ caps.</i>
“ “	<i>On the tree,</i>	has no equivalent word.	

So also the Phrases *under ground—across the bridge—through the fields—in the school-room—on the desk*, have no equivalent words.

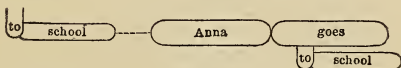
Hence we see that Phrases are not only *convenient* in expressing our thoughts elegantly, but that they are also *necessary* to the correct expression of our thoughts.

What is a Phrase?

Definition 21. A *Phrase* is two or more words used as a single part of a Sentence, or of another Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

1. *To school* Anna goes to school.



2. *At home* She studies at home.

Goes where? Studies where?

3. *On foot* We went on foot.

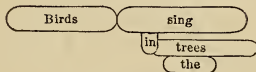
4. *Under ground* Rabbits burrow under ground.

Where do rabbits burrow?

What, then, is the office of the Phrase "*under ground*?"

The Phrase "*under ground*" is an Adjunct of "*burrow*." It tells *where* they burrow.

5. Birds sing *in the trees*.



Sing where?

Point out the Phrases in the following Sentences, and place them in the same Diagram :

6. William walked *over the bridge*.

7. Charles sits *on the bench*.

8. Clara goes *to the seminary*.

9. Mary plays for the company.

Tell the office of each Phrase.

Remember—

Phrases, like { *Principal Elements* and
Sentences, have { *Adjunct Elements*.

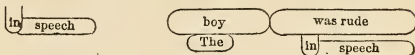
Principal Elements.

What are the Principal Elements of a Phrase?

Definition 22. The *Principal Elements* of a Phrase are the words necessary to its structure.

EXAMPLES.

1. *In speech* The boy was rude in speech.



2. *To Kansas* Our Willie has gone to Kansas.
 3. *On deck* The boy stood on the burning deck.
 4. *In Chicago* Hattie's father lives in Chicago.
 5. *By steam* The cars are propelled by steam.
 6. *Of pupils* The majority of the pupils.
 7. *In room* Study in the schoolroom.

The Principal Elements of a Phrase consist of what?

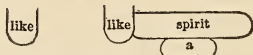
The *Principal Elements* of a Phrase are the *Leader* and the *Subsequent*.

What is the Leader of a Phrase?

Definition 23. The *Leader* of a Phrase is the word used to introduce the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

Like Like a spirit it came in the van of a storm.



In In the van.

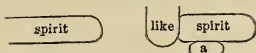
Of Of a storm.

What is the Subsequent of a Phrase?

Definition 24. The *Subsequent* of a Phrase is the Element which follows the Leader as its Object.

EXAMPLES.

Spirit Like a spirit [it came.]



Leader. Subsequent.

<i>On</i>	<i>sea</i>	The sun rose on the sea.
<i>From</i>	<i>lake</i>	A mist rose from the lake.
<i>In</i>	<i>song</i>	Night passed away in song.
<i>To</i>	<i>Naples</i>	Warner has gone to Naples.
<i>To</i>	<i>study</i>	Anna loves to study at home.
<i>To</i>	<i>be censured</i>	She does not like to be censured.
<i>Scaling</i>	<i>peak</i>	"Scaling yonder peak I saw an eagle."

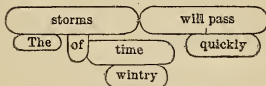
Adjunct Elements.

What are the Adjuncts of a Phrase?

Definition 25. The *Adjuncts* of a Phrase are the words used to modify or limit the meaning of other words in the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

1. *The* The sun rose on the sea.
2. *Yonder* Scaling yonder peak I saw an eagle.
3. *Wintry* The storms of wintry time will quickly pass.



4. *This* The students of this class will now recite.
5. *Our* Our love for our parents should never diminish.

RECAPITULATION.

Phrases consist of { The *Leader*,
The *Subsequent*,
 Adjuncts.

EXERCISES.

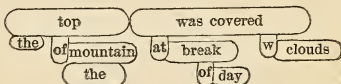
Point out the Phrases in the following Sentences, and tell the *Leader*, the *Subsequent*, and the *Adjuncts* of each :

1. Scipio routed the forces of *Hannibal*.
2. He received the fruit of *his virtues*.
3. The course of *life* is short.
4. The love of *country* prevailed.
5. Piso brought assistance to *his brother*.
6. Vulcan made arms for Achilles.
7. They favored the undertakings of Catiline.
8. The sacred mount is beyond the river.
9. A faithful friend is known in adversity.
10. No artist can, by imitation, attain to the skill of nature.

Analyze and Parse the above Sentences and Phrases—by the following

MODEL.

At break of day the top of the mountain was covered with cloud.

*Analysis of the Sentence.*

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The Subject	"Top."
		The Predicate	"Was covered."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	Of the Subject	{ "The," a Word. "Of the mountain," . . . a Phrase.
		Of the Predicate	{ "At break of day," . . . a Phrase. "With cloud," a Phrase.

Parsed.

"At break of day" is an element in the Sentence.

Adjunct Element.

Phrase—*Adverbial*.

"The" is an Element in the Sentence.
 Adjunct Element.
 Word—*Adjective*.

"Top" is an Element in the Sentence.
 Principal Element.
 Subject.
 Word—*Noun*.

"Of the mountain" is an Element in the Sentence.
 Adjunct Element.
 Phrase—*Adjective*.

"Was covered" is an Element in the Sentence.
 Principal Element.
 Predicate.
Verb and *Participle*.

"With cloud" is an Element in the Sentence.
 Adjunct Element.
 Phrase—*Adverbial*.

Analyses of the Phrases.

1. "At break of day."

The *Leader* "At," a Preposition.
 The *Subsequent* "Break," a Noun.
Adjunct "Of day," a Phrase.

2. "Of day."

The *Leader* "Of," a Preposition.
 The *Subsequent* "Day," a Noun.

3. "Of the mountain."

The *Leader* "Of," a Preposition.
 The *Subsequent* "Mountain," a Noun.
Adjunct "The," an Adjective.

4. "With cloud."

The *Leader* "With," a Preposition.
 The *Subsequent* "Cloud," a Noun.

Parsed.

At is an Element in the Phrase.
The Leader—*Preposition*.

Break is an Element in the Phrase.
The Subsequent.
Word—*Noun*.

Of day is an Element in the Phrase.
Adjunct.
Phrase—*Adjective*.

Thus parse the other Phrases.

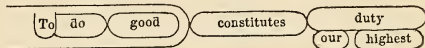
THE OFFICES OF PHRASES.

Remember—Phrases, like words, may constitute Elements in Sentences.

1. A Phrase may be the Subject of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. *To do good*, constitutes our highest duty.



What constitutes our highest duty?

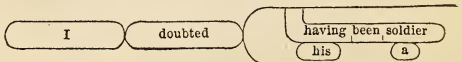
2. *His being a minister*, prevented his rising to civil power.

Definition 26. A Phrase that is the Subject of a Sentence is called a *Substantive Phrase*.

2. A Phrase may be the Object of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

3. I doubted *his having been a soldier*.



Doubted what?

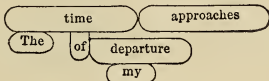
4. Will your father forbid your studying Grammar?

Definition 27. A Phrase that is the Object of a Sentence is called a *Substantive Phrase*.

3. A Phrase may be an Adjunct of the Subject.

EXAMPLES.

5. The TIME of my departure approaches.



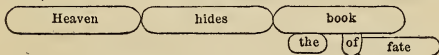
What *time*?

6. The storms of wintry time will pass.

4. A Phrase may be Adjunct of the Object.

EXAMPLES.

7. Heaven [from all creatures], hides the book of fate.



What *book*?

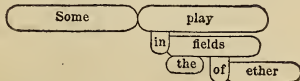
8. We were visiting the home of our childhood.

What *home*? Of whose *childhood*?

5. A Phrase may be Adjunct to the Object of another Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

9. Some IN THE FIELDS of ether play.



Play where? What *fields*?

10. They bask and whiten in the blaze of day.

Definition 28. A Phrase that is an Adjunct of a Noun or of a Pronoun is an *Adjective Phrase*.

6. A Phrase may be Adjunct to a Verb in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

11. Willie HAS GONE *to Kansas*.



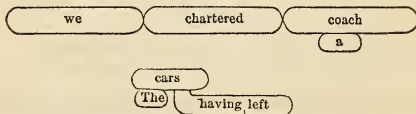
Gone where?

12. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming. *When? Where?*

Definition 29. A Phrase that is an Adjunct of a Verb is therefore *Adverbial* in its office.

Definition 30. A Phrase that is not connected with any other Element is *Independent*.

13. "*The cars having left*, we chartered a coach."

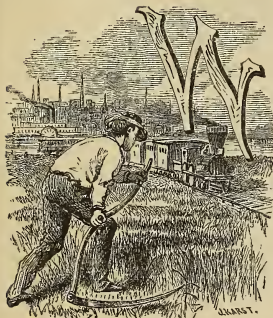


14. *The wind blowing hard* we avoided the forest.

RECAPITULATION.

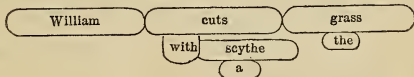
By their *uses*, Phrases are { *Substantive,*
Adjective,
Adverbial,
Independent.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES AND OF PHRASES.



WILLIAM cuts grass with a scythe.

2. He has bought a farm on the prairie.
3. Cars pass his door every day.
4. Do you see a city in the distance?
5. Can you put these Sentences in this Diagram?
6. Try the experiment with the first.



Of the Sentence.	PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject "William."	
		The Predicate "Cuts."	
		The Object "Grass."	
	ADJUNCT	Of the Predicate . . "With a scythe," . . a Phrase.	
		Of the Object "The," a Word.	
Of the Phrase.	PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Leader "With," a Preposition.	
		The Subsequent . . "Scythe," a Noun.	
	ADJUNCT	Of the Subsequent. "A," an Adjective.	

Let the pupils thus analyze the following Sentences and Phrases—first placing them in the corresponding Diagrams which follow:

2. Across the ocean CAME a pilgrim BARK.
3. The BARK of the trunk of the white-oak IS frequently VARIEGATED with large spots.
4. The WOOD of the young stocks IS VERY ELASTIC, and is SUSCEPTIBLE of minute divisions.

5. The FLOWERS PUT FORTH in the month of May. [Put forth—bloom.]
6. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
In rayless majesty, now STRETCHES FORTH
Her leaden SCEPTRE o'er a slumbering world.
7. VULGARISM in language is a distinguishing CHARACTERISTIC of
bad company and a bad education.
8. The WOOD of the silver fir IS not much USED as timber.
9. The hemlock SPRUCE IS not much ESTEEMED for timber.
10. Milton's LEARNING HAS all the EFFECT of intuition.
11. His IMAGINATION HAS the FORCE of nature.
12. HEAVEN, from all creatures, HIDES the BOOK of fate.
13. And as *Jesus passed* by, HE SAW a MAN *who was blind*.
14. If a noble *squire had conducted himself* well, during the period of
his service, the HONOR of knighthood WAS generally CONFERRED
upon him at the age of twenty.
15. Another bright day's SUNSET BATHES the HILLS *that gird Samaria*.
16. One GLANCE of wonder, as *we pass*, DESERVE the BOOKS of Time.

2.		Simple	Intransitive.
3.		"	"
4.		Compound	"
5.		Simple	"
6.		"	Transitive.
7.		"	Intransitive.
8.		"	"
9.		"	"
10.		"	Transitive.
11.		"	"
12.		"	"
13.		Complex.	
14.		"	
15.		"	
16.		"	

EXERCISES.

Make Diagrams for the following Sentences—point out the Phrases in them—tell the offices of each, and analyze them by Model, p.55.

1. The memory of past evils disturbs us.
2. The love of his country influenced him.
3. The desire for money controls the miser.
4. The infirmities of nature are common to all.
5. The soldiers divided the spoils of war.
6. The whole army was sent under the yoke.
7. The moon shines with a borrowed light.
8. The states of Thessaly enriched the children of Pelopidas.
9. By the people of this generation, the question is *to be decided*.
10. I came not here *to talk*.
11. You know too well the story of our thralldom.
12. We are slaves to a horde of petty tyrants.
13. On some fond breast, the parting soul relies.
14. Speak kindly to the little children.*

THE FORMS OF PHRASES.

In their forms, Phrases are { *Prepositional,*
Infinitive,
Participial,
Independent.

What is a Prepositional Phrase?

Definition 31. A Phrase whose Leader is a Preposition, and whose Subsequent is a Noun or a Pronoun, is called a *Prepositional Phrase*.

* TO THE TEACHER.—We have now given the *Definition*, the *Analyses*, and the *Etymological Offices* of Phrases.

These are *all that are essential* to the proper Analyses of Sentences, and these are, perhaps, all that *young pupils* should be required to learn at this stage of their progress in Grammar.

Lessons on the "Structure and Forms" of Phrases which immediately follow may be reserved until the class review—at the discretion of the Teacher.

EXAMPLES.

At midnight in his guarded tent
The Turk was dreaming.

What is a Preposition?

Definition 32. A word used to connect other words *by expressing their relation* to each other is called a *Preposition*.

EXAMPLES.

On Henry *stands* on the bridge.
Across William *walked* across the bridge.
At At *midnight* the Turk *was dreaming*.
With William *cuts* grass with a scythe.

OBSERVATION.—A Preposition generally introduces a Phrase and connects it to the word which the Phrase modifies.

What is an Infinitive Phrase?

Definition 33. A Phrase having the Preposition *to* for its Leader and a *Verb* for its Subsequent, is called an *Infinitive Phrase*.

EXAMPLES.

To recite lessons
our
To recite our lessons.

We are ready to recite our lessons.

We are ready
to recite lessons
our

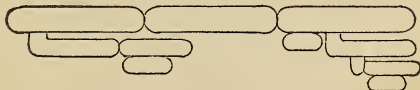
What is a Participial Phrase?

Definition 34. A Phrase introduced by a *Participle*, followed by a Noun or by a Pronoun, is called a *Participial Phrase*.

EXAMPLES.

Scaling peak
yonder Scaling yonder peak.

Scaling yonder peak I saw an eagle
Wheeling near its brow.



What is an Independent Phrase?

Definition 35. A Phrase whose Leader is a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*, followed by a *Participle*, is called an *Independent Phrase*.

EXAMPLES.

The *hour having arrived*, we commenced the Exercises.

we commenced exercises
the
hour
The having arrived

What is a Participle?

Definition 36. A word derived from a Verb by the addition of *ing* or *ed** is called a *Participle*.

EXAMPLES.

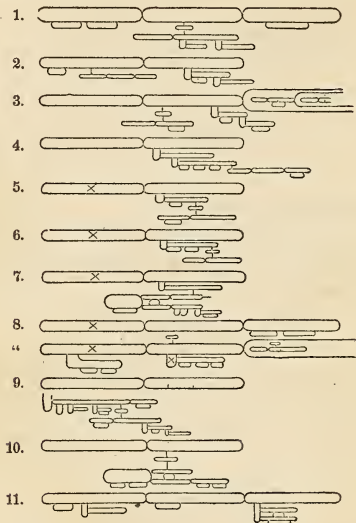
Loving Anna is both lovely and loving.

Seeing I passed the ball without seeing him.

* Participles derived from Irregular Verbs are formed variously. [See p. 117.]

Puzzles in Analysis and Synthesis.

1st Set. Let the pupils find the *Sentences* below adapted to the following *Diagrams*—place each Diagram on the blackboard and the appropriate Sentence in it:

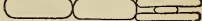
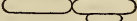
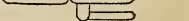
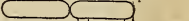
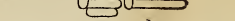
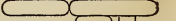
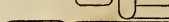


1. HE SUNK to sleep,
With all the nameless shapes *that haunt the deep.*
2. Wheresoe'er our best *affections dwell,*
And *strike* a healthful root, IS HAPPINESS.
3. SURVEY his sleepless COUCH, and standing there,
TELL the poor pallid wretch that *life is fair.*
4. Beneath the spear of Cathmar ROSE that VOICE *which awakes the bards.*
5. ABIDE with him *whom* Penury's charms control,
And bind the rising *yearnings* of whose soul.
6. IT MUST BE SWEET in childhood to give back
The spirit to its Maker, ere the heart
Has grown familiar with the ways of sin.

7. Go to the mat where squalid *Want* reclines.
8. A MAN of refinement never HAS RECOURSE to proverbs and vulgar aphorisms.
9. Go to the shade obscure where *Merit* pines.
10. The troubled OCEAN FEELS his STEPS, as *he strides* from wave to wave.
11. As *they sat* down, ONE SAID to his friend on his right, "*We shall soon see who is who.*"

Now let each Sentence be analyzed by the formula given on previous pages.

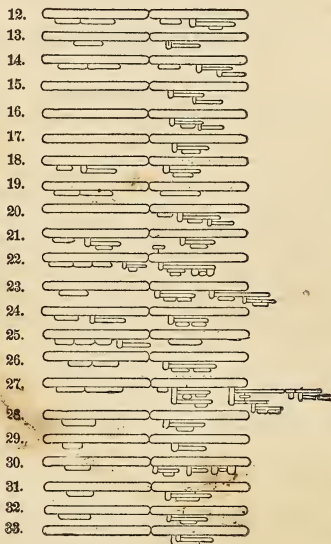
2d Set. Diagrams and appropriate Sentences are given. Let each pupil make an *original Sentence* adapted to each Diagram.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. No Object.....
Anna sings. |  |
| 2. One Object.....
Clara studies Grammar. |  |
| 3. Two Objects.....
We invited Lucy and Jennie. |  |
| 4. One Word Adjunct.....
Anna sings sweetly. |  |
| 5. Two Word Adjuncts.....
Lucy comes here often. |  |
| 6. One Phrase Adjunct.....
Clara studies at home. |  |
| 7. Two Phrase Adjuncts.....
Father comes from the office at noon. |  |
| 8. One Word and one Phrase.....
Lucy often calls on us. |  |
| 9. Two Words and one Phrase.....
Ernest generally speaks well at school. |  |
| 10. One Intransitive Sentence Adjunct.....
I will go if you will. |  |
| 11. One Transitive Sentence Adjunct.....
John studies when he attends school. |  |
| 12. One Word, one Sentence, and one Phrase.....
We seldom succeed in school unless we obey commands. |  |
| 13. One Logical Adjunct.....
The cars having departed, we returned. |  |
- (A Logical Adjunct is not joined to its Principal by any connecting word.)

Let each Sentence be analyzed and parsed.

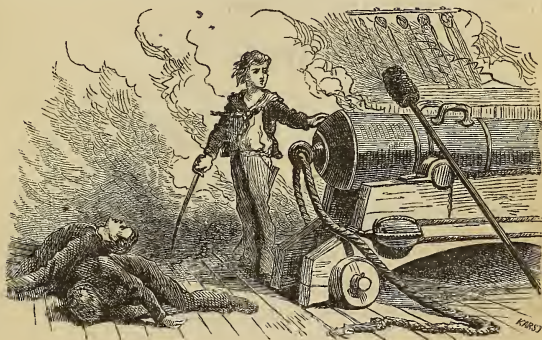
3d Set. (a) Let each pupil copy on paper one of the following *Diagrams* and fill it with an *original Sentence*—or

(b) Let all the pupils take the same Diagram and fill it with an original Sentence—one being taken each day as an extra Exercise—each pupil being allowed to choose his own Subject—the teacher requiring only that the Sentence shall be, in all its parts, adapted to the Diagram.



PART II.

WORDS—THEIR FORMS AND THEIR USES.



“ The boy stood on the burning deck
Whence all but him had fled ;
The flames that lit the battle’s wreck
Shone round him, o’er the dead.”

Do the picture and these words give us similar thoughts ?

What is the principal object in the picture ?

What is the principal word in the Sentence ?

Does the picture show what the boy did ?

Which word tells what the boy did ?

Does the picture show where the boy stood ?

What phrase tells where the boy stood ?

Does the picture show the condition of the deck ?

What word tells the condition of the deck ?

Remember—*Pictures* and *words* are signs of ideas.

(a) Pictures are *general signs*—understood by all people who see them.

(b) Words are *particular signs*—understood by all people who have learned what the words mean.

(c) Words are { Spoken and
Written.

Spoken words consist in sounds.

Written words are made of letters.

Words.

Remember—Words differ { In their definitions,
In their forms,
In their uses.

Lexicography.

For the *definitions* of words we consult the Dictionary.

Orthography.

The *forms* of words are determined by the letters which compose them. For definitions and rules in Orthography, we consult the Spelling Book.

Etymology.

All words found in the Dictionary are used for nine different purposes:

1. As Names of persons or of things.

Those are called *Nouns*.

2. As Substitutes for Nouns.

Those are called *Pronouns*.

3. To declare something.

These we call *Verbs*.

4. To specify or qualify things.

These we call *Adjectives*.

5. To modify an act or a quality.

These we call *Adverbs*.

6. To show some relations of things.

These we call *Prepositions*.

7. To connect Words, or Phrases, or Sentences.

These we call *Conjunctions*.

8. To denote some sudden or intense emotion.

These we call *Exclamations*.

9. Only for elegance of expression.

These we call *Words of Euphony*.

Remember—In the structure of Sentences different sorts of words supply different Parts. Thus:

1. The *Subject* of a Sentence must be a Noun or a Pronoun.
2. The *Predicate* of a Sentence must be at least a Verb.*
3. The *Object* of a Sentence must be a Noun or a Pronoun.
4. *Adjuncts* of a Noun or of a Pronoun must be Adjectives.
5. All other Adjuncts are Adverbs.

The Noun—Classes.

That *boy* is named *Charles*.

Boy—Is that word a Noun?

Why do you call it a Noun?

Charles—Is that word a Noun?

Why do you call it a Noun?

Are both those words names of the same person?

What, then, is the difference in the two words?

The word “boy” is a name common to many young persons—a *Common Name*.

The word “Charles” is a special name, given to one of those young persons—a *Proper Name*.

Hence

Remember—Nouns are $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Common Nouns or} \\ \text{Proper Nouns.} \end{array} \right.$

* But the Predicate may contain other sorts of words. [See page 21.]

What is a Common Noun?

Definition 43. A Noun which is a name of a sort or class of persons or of things is called a *Common Noun*.

EXAMPLES.—*City, country, state, man.*

What is a Proper Noun?

Definition 44. The name of an individual person or place, or of a thing personified, is called a *Proper Noun*.

EXAMPLES.—*Chicago, America, Kansas, Columbus.*

Remember—Of Common Nouns, we have

1. *Abstract Nouns*—Names of qualities, as *goodness*.
2. *Collective Nouns*—Names of many individuals, as *assembly*.
3. *Verbal Nouns*—Names derived from Verbs, as the *beginning*.

EXERCISES.

Of the Nouns in the following list, select

1. All the *Proper Nouns*.
2. All the *Common Nouns*; and of these
 - (a) All the *Abstract Nouns*.
 - (b) All the *Collective Nouns*.
 - (c) All the *Verbal Nouns*.

1. William and his wife have gone to Kansas.
2. My friend John was chairman of the meeting.
3. He manifested some uneasiness as to the report of the committee.
4. The house consumed much time in electing a speaker.
5. The voting for clerk of the senate continued through the day.
6. The boy stood on the burning deck.
7. Whence all but him had fled.
8. The flames that let the battles wreck.
9. Shone round him o'er the dead.

II. Let each pupil make a Sentence containing the following Nouns:
Boys, Charles, thoughts, smartness, community, singing.

III. MODEL FOR PARSING.

“William” is a Name—hence it is a Noun. It is the name appropriated to an individual—hence it is a Proper Noun.

“Wife” is a Name—hence a Noun. Name of a class of persons—hence a Common Noun.

“Voting” is a Name—hence a Noun. Name of an act—and derived from the Verb “vote”—hence it is a Verbal Noun.

“Senate” is a Name—hence a Noun. Name that includes many persons in one term—hence it is a Collective Noun.

“Uneasiness” is a Name—hence a Noun. Name of a mental state—hence an Abstract Noun.

MODIFICATIONS OF NOUNS.

Eva.

For what is this word used?

Do people give that name to boys?

William.

For what is this word used?

Do people give that name to girls?

Then if “Eva” is the name of a girl, we may call it a *feminine name*.

If “William” is the name of a boy, we may call it a *masculine name*.

Hat.

For what is this word used?

Is “hat” a feminine name?

Is “hat” a masculine name?

Then it is neither masculine nor feminine.

Remember 1. Some Nouns are the names of males.

2. Some Nouns are the names of females.

3. Some Nouns are names of things that are neither males nor females.

What do Grammarians mean by the term Gender?

Definition 45. The term *Gender* is used in Grammar to denote distinctions of sex.

What Nouns are said to be masculine?

Definition 46. Nouns known to be the names of males are of the *Masculine Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—*Alfred, Charles, William, Ernest.*

What Nouns are said to be feminine?

Definition 47. Nouns known to be the names of females are of the *Feminine Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—*Mary, Cora, Clara, Anna.*

What Nouns are of the Neuter Gender?

Definition 48. Nouns known to be the names of things are of neither Gender—otherwise called the *Neuter Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—*Book, pen, desk.*

Are all Nouns distinguished by Gender?

English * Nouns that do not show by their forms whether they are names of males or of females or neither, are not modified by Gender.

EXAMPLES.—*Neighbor, cousin, parent, assembly.*

OBSERVATION.—A few Nouns that denote the *conditions* of people—and the names of some female animals, have certain distinctions of forms that indicate the sex.

* In the Latin, Greek, and many other languages, the term "Gender" applies to all Nouns and Pronouns, and also to Adjectives and to Participles. But in English, all we need of the term is to aid us in the proper use of the Pronouns *he, she, him* and *her* (and the Adjectives "his" and "her")—and perhaps to assist in selecting names for boys and girls. In parsing Nouns and Pronouns, it is unnecessary to use the term Gender unless they are obviously masculine or feminine.

"The distinction of sex" is a very important *physiological* distinction—and social too—but in English Grammar its importance has been quite too much magnified.

EXAMPLES.

1.—Distinguished by different Words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor.	Maid.	King.	Queen.
Boy.	Girl.	Lad.	Lass.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord.	Lady.
Drake.	Duck.	Man.	Woman.
Father.	Mother.	Nephew.	Niece.
Husband.	Wife.	Uncle.	Aunt.

2.—By Letters added to the same Word.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Actor.	Actress.	Patron.	Patroness.
Author.	Authoress.	Prince.	Princess.
Governor.	Governess.	Protector.	Protectress.
Heir.	Heiress.	Shepherd.	Shepherdess.
Jew.	Jewess.	Songster.	Songstress.
Lion.	Lioness.	Tailor.	Tailoress.

Masculine.

Administrator.

Hero.

Testator.

Widower.

Feminine.

Administratrix.

Heroine.

Testatrix.

Widow.

3.—By prefixing or adding other Words.

Masculine.

Cock-sparrow.

Gentleman.

He-goat.

Landlord.

Man-servant.

Feminine.

Hen-sparrow.

Gentlewoman.

She-goat.

Landlady.

Maid-servant.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupils turn to the Exercises on page 66 and tell—

1. Which Nouns are *Masculine*.

2. Which Nouns are *Feminine*.

3. Which Nouns are *Neuter*.
4. Which Nouns are not modified by Gender.

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing—

1. A Noun of the *Masculine Gender*.
2. A Noun of the *Feminine Gender*.
3. A Noun of the *Neuter Gender*.
4. A Noun not modified by Gender.

PERSON.

Remember—All Nouns and Pronouns represent

1. The person *speaking*.
2. The person or thing *spoken to*; or
3. The person or thing *spoken of*.

What is Person in Grammar?

Definition 49. *Person* is that modification of Nouns and of Pronouns which distinguishes the *speaker* from the person or thing *spoken to* or *spoken of*.

How many distinctions of Persons have Nouns and Pronouns?

Nouns* and Pronouns are of { The *First Person*.
The *Second Person*; or
The *Third Person*.

First Person.

What Nouns and Pronouns are of the First Person?

Definition 50. Nouns and Pronouns that denote the *speakers*, are of the First Person.

EXAMPLES.

I "I, John, saw these things."

We "We, Athenians, are at fault."

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing a Noun or a Pronoun of the First Person.

* All Nouns, except the names of persons or things addressed, are of the *Third Person*—unless used as explanatory of a Pronoun of the First or of the Second Person.

Second Person.

What Nouns and Pronouns are of the Second Person?

Definition 51. Nouns and Pronouns denoting persons or things *spoken to*, are of the Second Person.

EXAMPLES.

Thou " *Thou sun*, said I, fair *light* ! "

You " I write to *you*, young *men*. "

Ye " *Ye crags and peaks*, I'm with *you* once again. "

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing a Noun or a Pronoun of the *Second Person*.

Third Person.

What Nouns and Pronouns are of the Third Person?

Definition 52. Nouns and Pronouns denoting persons or things *spoken of*, are of the Third Person.

EXAMPLES.

He " He stood on an eminence, and glory covered him. "

Hero " The hero hath departed. "

She " She gave a look of melting tenderness. "

It " It came and faded like a wreath of mist. "

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing a Noun or a Pronoun of the *Third Person*.

NUMBER.

Book.	books.	House.	houses.
Box.	boxes.	Mouse.	mice.
Man.	men.	Child.	children.
Knife.	knives.	Genus.	genera.

Remember—Some Nouns and Pronouns denote a *single thing*;—others denote *more than one*.

What is Number in Grammar?

Definition 53. *Number* is that modification of certain Nouns and Pronouns whose forms distinguish *unity* from *plurality*—one from more than one.

Singular Number.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun of the Singular Number?

Definition 54. A Noun or a Pronoun denoting a single thing, is of the *Singular Number*.

EXAMPLES.

Book "Mary gave me a book."

I "I hold the pen of a ready writer."

Man "Man needs but little here below."

Ox "The ox knoweth his owner."

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing a Noun or a Pronoun of the *Singular Number*.

Plural Number.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun said to be of the Plural Number?

Definition 55. A Noun or a Pronoun denoting more than one, is of the *Plural Number*.

EXAMPLES.

Books "Of making many books there is no end."

We "We have come from the mountains."

Men "Most men seek renown."

Oxen "I have bought five yoke of oxen."

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing a Noun or a Pronoun of the *Plural Number*.

NOTE.—Some Nouns and Pronouns are not modified in Number—i. e., they are not varied in form to denote the Number.

EXAMPLES.

Nouns Sheep, deer, scissors, apparatus.

Pronouns You, who, which, that, what.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupils turn to page 63 and give the Person and Number of each Noun in the Exercises.

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing—

1. A Noun in the *Singular Number*.
2. A Noun in the *Plural Number*.



ALPH has a pony.

1. Ralph

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph?"

2. The pony carries Ralph.

Ralph

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph?"

3. Who gave the pony to Ralph?

Ralph

Is this word "Ralph" a part of the Sentence or of the "Phrase?"
What part of the Phrase is that word?

4. That boy riding the pony is Ralph.

is Ralph

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph?"

5. Ralph, will you sell your pony?

Ralph

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph?"

6. My friend Ralph rides his pony often.

Ralph

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph?"

7. I will ride the pony—Ralph giving permission.

Ralph

Is this word "Ralph" a part of a Sentence or of a Phrase?
What part of the Phrase is that word?

8. Ralph's pony is a fine animal.

Ralph's

What part of this Sentence is the word "Ralph's?"

Thus we see that the word Ralph may occur in eight different conditions:

1. As Subject of the Sentence *Subjective*.
 2. As Object of the Sentence } *Objective*.
 3. As Object of the Phrase }
 4. In Predicate with a Verb *Predicative*.
 5. As the name of a person addressed *Appellative*.
 6. Explanatory of a preceding Noun *Appositive*.
 7. As Leader of an Independent Phrase *Absolute*.
 8. As an Adjunct of a Noun *Adjective*.
- And if in the Possessive form *Possessive*.

Remember—In English Grammar, the *Condition** of a Noun (*i. e.*, its *relation* to other words) is called its *Case*.

Remember—Of these eight conditions of Nouns and of Pronouns, only three enter into the structure of Sentences as Essential or Principal Elements.

These conditions are—

1. The *Subject* My friend visited me.
2. The *Object* I entertained my friend.
3. In *Predicate* George is my friend.

In all other cases, Nouns and Pronouns are Independent,† *i. e.*, they are not dependent on other words in the construction of a Sentence.

Subjective Case.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the Subjective ‡ Case?

Definition 56. A Noun or a Pronoun which is the *Subject* of a Sentence is in the *Subjective Case*.

* In Latin and Greek Grammars the *form* of a Noun is called its *Case*.

† The comprehensive term "Independent Case" is suited to all of them, while the specific terms—*Appellative*, *Absolute*, and *Appositive*—seem appropriate to the special offices indicated in the text. Nouns in the *Possessive* form lose their substantive character and become *Adjuncts* of other Nouns—*Adjectives*.

‡ Called "Nominative Case" in the old grammars.

EXAMPLES.

John John studies grammar.

Birds Birds build nests.

I I come not here to talk.

He He stood on an eminence.

She Will she return again?

Can we know by its form when a Noun is in the Subjective Case?

The forms of Nouns do not determine their Case. We know when a Noun is in the Subjective Case only by its being the *Subject* of a Sentence.

How do we know which word in a Sentence is the Subject?

The Subject of a Sentence may be known by its properly answering the question *Who?* or *What?* placed *before* the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. John studies grammar.

Who *studies grammar?*

2. Virtue secures happiness.

What *secures happiness?*

Let each pupil make a Sentence which shall have the word *John* in the *Subjective Case*.

Objective Case.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the Objective Case?

Definition 57. A Noun or a Pronoun which is the *Object* of a Sentence or of a Phrase, is in the *Objective Case*.

EXAMPLES.

John William assists *John*, and is assisted by *John*.

Birds We saw some birds chasing other *birds*.

Me Attempting to injure *me* he benefited *me*.

Him *Him* from my childhood I have known.

Her We saw *her* and spoke to *her*.

*How may we know which word in a Sentence is the Object?**

The Object of a Sentence may be known by its properly answering the question *Whom?* or *What?* placed after the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. William assisted John. *Assisted whom?*
2. Virtue secures happiness. *Secures what?*

How may we know the Object of a Phrase?

We may know the Object of a Phrase by its properly answering the question *Whom?* or *What?* placed after the Leader of the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

- William was assisted by John. *By whom?*
 We saw some birds chasing other birds. *Chasing what?*

Let each pupil make a Sentence which shall contain the word *John* as its *Object*.

Let each pupil make a Phrase which shall contain the word *John* as its *Object*.

Predicative Case.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun in Predicate?

Definition 58. A Noun or a Pronoun used with a Verb to declare something of the Subject is in *Predicate*.†

EXAMPLES.

- Friends* We are friends.
Scholar Thou art a scholar.
Vapor Clouds are vapor.
I It is *I*—it was *John*.
Love God is love.

“If it be *thou*, bid me come to thee.”

* In some languages, the form of Nouns and Pronouns determines their Case. Not so in English—all Nouns have the same forms. Only the Pronouns *I*, *me*, *we*, *us*, *thou*, *thee*, *she*, *her*, *who* and *whom* show their Case by their forms. Hence, when we have learned the right forms of these words, we have mastered the mysteries of Case—so far as *forms* are concerned.

† In the old grammars this Case is also called “Nominative.”

Let each pupil make a Sentence—

- (1) Having a Noun in Predicate.
- (2) Having a Pronoun in Predicate.

Independent Case.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the Independent Case?

A Noun or a Pronoun not dependent on any other word in its Sentence is in the *Independent Case*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *John—America—boy—country.*
2. *Hamlet*, you have your father much offended.
3. The *teacher* being absent, Alfred took the chair.
4. Peter the *hermit* resembled Peter the *apostle*.

The above Examples show

That the Independent Case includes—

1. Nouns simply mentioned—signs—cards, &c.—having no connection with a Sentence—*Naming*.

EXAMPLES.—John Smith—Post-office—Tin and sheet iron—Great Eastern.

2. Nouns and Pronouns used with Participles, to form Independent Phrases—*Absolute*.*

EXAMPLES.—“The *sun* having risen, we struck tents and started.”

3. Names of persons and things addressed—*Appellative*.*

EXAMPLES.—“*John*, how long is it to dinner?”

4. Nouns and Pronouns used to explain preceding Nouns and Pronouns—*Appositive*.

EXAMPLES.—Peter the *hermit* resembled Peter the *apostle*.

Ye *crag*s and *peak*s, I am with you once again.”

Remember—Nouns in this Case—being explanatory of other Nouns—are *Logical Adjuncts*.

Let the pupil make Sentences—using Independent Nouns.

1. Naming.—2. Appellative.—3. Absolute.—4. Appositive.

* In the old grammars, these Cases are also called Nominative.

Possessive Case.

Remember—Many words, commonly used as Nouns, are sometimes used to describe persons and things; then they become *Adjectives*.

When is a Noun or a Pronoun changed into an Adjective?

A Noun or a Pronoun becomes an Adjective *whenever it is used to modify or limit the signification of another Noun or Pronoun.*

EXAMPLES.

Nouns.—Iron, gold, straw, Webster.

These become Adjectives in the following positions:

An *iron* fence; a *gold* pen; a *straw* hat; *Webster's* dictionary.

Do such words change their forms on becoming Adjectives?

Some Nouns and Pronouns are changed in form on becoming Adjectives, and some are not.

EXAMPLES.

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. <i>Without change</i> | 1. Gold | A <i>gold</i> pen. |
| | 2. Wool | A <i>wool</i> hat. |
| | 3. Brick | A <i>brick</i> house. |
| 2. <i>With change</i> | 4. Gold | A <i>golden</i> harvest. |
| | 5. Wool | A <i>woolly</i> animal. |
| | 6. Children | <i>Children's</i> shoes. |
| | 7. Nation | National Series. |

NOTE.—When an apostrophe ['] with (and sometimes without) the letter *s*, is added to a Noun, it is in the *Possessive form*; and it is then said by some grammarians to be in the *Possessive Case*. By others, in the *Genitive Case*. Yet, in its Syntax, it is *Adjective*—because it “*limits the signification of a Noun.*”

EXAMPLES.

John *Jane* is using *John's* book.

Man Then shall *man's* pride and dullness comprehend.

Action His *action's*, *passion's*, *being's* use and end.

Boys George sells *boys'* caps.

Do words in the Possessive form always indicate possession or ownership?

Words in the Possessive form sometimes *do*, and sometimes *do not*, indicate possession.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain a Noun or a Pronoun in the *Possessive form*, and let him give the *office* of the Word in the Sentence.

Indicating possession John's book, my book, your hat.

Not indicating possession Todd's Students' Manual.

Burns' Cotter's Saturday Night.

Gould's Adam's Latin Grammar.

Whose future has been revealed?

EXERCISES.

I. Let the pupils tell the *Case* of the following Nouns:

1. Such men mistake the true aim of life.
2. Herod and Pilate were made friends.
3. John, have you seen Smith the blacksmith to-day?
4. The boy stood on the burning deck.
5. Whence all but him had fled.
6. The flames that lit the battle's wreck,
Shone round him o'er the dead.
7. Peter the disciple was an apostle to the Gentiles.

II. Let each pupil make a Sentence containing one of the words *man*, *Jerusalem*, *sun*.

- (a) In the Subjective Case.
- (b) " " Objective Case.
- (c) " " Predicative Case.
- (d) " " Independent Case.—Absolute.
- (e) " " " " Appellative.
- (f) " " " " Appositive.
- (g) " " " " Possessive.

III. Analyze the above Sentences and parse the Nouns after the following

MODEL.

Peter the disciple was an apostle.

Analyzed.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The Subject	Peter.
		The Predicate	Was apostle.
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	Of the Subject	The disciple.
		Of the Noun in Predicate	An.

Parsed.

“Peter” is an Element in the Sentence.

A Principal Element—The Subject—Word—
Noun, Proper—Third Person—Singular
Number—*Subjective Case*.

“Disciple” is an Explanatory Word.

A Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular
Number—*Appositive Case*.

“Apostle” is an Element in the Sentence.

A Principal Element—in Predicate—Noun—
Common—Third Person—Singular Num-
ber—*Predicative Case*.

RECAPITULATION.

NOUNS ARE MODIFIED BY	{	<i>Gender.</i>	{ Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.
		<i>Person.</i>	{ First, Second, Third.
		<i>Number.</i>	{ Singular, Plural.
		<i>Case.</i>	{ Subjective, Predicative, Objective, Independent, Appellative, Appositive, Absolute, Possessive.

PRONOUNS.



ANNA and Willie carry a basket.

It is made of willows.

What is made of willows?

She wears a hat.

Who wears a hat?

He wears a cap.

Who wears a cap?

For what did I use the word "*it*?"

Does "*it*" always mean basket?

For what did I use the word "*she*?"

Does "*she*" always mean Anna?

For what did I use the word "*he*?"

Does "*he*" always mean Willie?

Remember—Some words are often used in place of other words; and, when they are used in place of Nouns, they are called *Pronouns*.

What is a Pronoun?

Definition 59. A *Pronoun* is a word used instead of a Noun.

EXAMPLES.—I, me, you, ye, he, him, she, her, it, we, us, they, them, who, whom, which, what, that.

Remember—The word for which a Pronoun is used is called its *Antecedent*.

What is the *Antecedent* of the Pronoun "*she*" in the Sentence above given?

"Ernest says he will ride his colt when it is large enough to carry him."

In this Sentence, what is the *Antecedent* of the Pronoun "*he*?"—Of the Pronoun "*it*?"—Of the Pronoun "*him*?"

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

"*He* that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul."

"*Who* will show us any good?"

- Remember* 1. Some Pronouns denote, by their forms, their modification of *Gender, Person, Number, and Case*.
2. Others *relate* directly to the Nouns for which they are substituted.
3. Others are used—in addition to their ordinary office—in asking *questions*.
4. Others *describe* or qualify the names for which they are substituted. Then—

How many classes of Pronouns have we?

There are four classes of Pronouns :

1. *Personal Pronouns.*
2. *Conjunctive (Relative) Pronouns.*
3. *Interrogative Pronouns.*
4. *Adjective Pronouns.*

“I call to you with all my voice.”

In this Sentence, for what is the word “I” used?

It is used instead of the *name of the speaker*.

Does that word always indicate the speaker?

For what is the word “you” used?

It is used instead of the name of the person spoken to.

Does that word always indicate the person addressed?

“He that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul.”

For what is the word “he” used?

It is used instead of the person spoken of.

Does it always represent the name of the person spoken of?

Remember—Pronouns may represent—

1. Persons speaking —*First Person.*
2. Persons spoken to—*Second Person.*
3. Persons spoken of—*Third Person.*

I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

What is a Personal Pronoun?

A Pronoun whose *form* determines whether it stands for the person *speaking*—the person *spoken to*—or the person *spoken of*, is a *Personal Pronoun*.

Which are the Personal Pronouns?

The Personal Pronouns are *I, thou, he, she, it, we, ye, you, they*; *me, thee, him, her, us* and *them*.

Which of these are of the First Person?

The Pronouns *I, me, we* and *us* are used to represent the persons speaking, and are therefore of the *First Person*.

Which are of the Second Person?

The Pronouns *thou, thee, ye* and *you* are used to represent the persons addressed, and are therefore of the *Second Person*.

Which are of the Third Person?

The Pronouns *he, him, she, her, it, they* and *them*, are used instead of persons or things spoken of, and are therefore of the *Third Person*.

Which are of the Singular Number?

The Pronouns *I, me, thou, thee, he, him, she, her* and *it* always represent but one person or thing, and are therefore of the *Singular Number*.

Which are of the Plural Number?

The Pronouns *we, us, ye, they* and *them* always represent more than one person or thing, and are therefore of the *Plural Number*.

Which Pronoun has the same form in both Numbers?

The Pronoun *you* is now used to represent one or more persons. Its form, therefore, does not distinguish the Number.

Which of the Pronouns distinguish the Gender by their forms?

Only the Pronouns *he, him, she, her* and *it* determine the Gender—all the others are not modified by Gender.

Let fifteen Sentences be made by the class—each Sentence containing a different Personal Pronoun.

RECAPITULATION.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS ARE OF THE	FIRST PERSON.	<i>Singular.</i>	Subjective form,	I
			Objective “	Me.
		<i>Plural.</i>	Subjective “	We.
			Objective “	Us.
	SECOND PERSON.	<i>Singular.</i>	Subjective “	Thou, you.
			Objective “	Thee, you.
		<i>Plural.</i>	Subjective “	Ye, you.
			Objective “	You.
	THIRD PERSON.	<i>Singular.</i>	Subjective “	Masc. He.
				Fem. She.
				Neut. It.
		Objective “		Masc. Him.
				Fem. Her.
				Neut. It.
	<i>Plural.</i>	Subjective “		They.
				Them.

Remember—The Pronouns *myself, ourselves, thyself, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, and themselves*, are called *Compound Personal Pronouns*.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain a Compound Personal Pronoun.

Other Pronouns.

Remember—Some Pronouns not only represent Nouns but also perform *secondary offices*.

1. To introduce Sentences *Conjunctive.*
2. To ask questions *Interrogative.*
3. To limit or qualify their antecedents *Adjective.*

II.—RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Remember—Pronouns that introduce Auxiliary Sentences are called *Relative Pronouns*.

They are also called *Conjunctive Pronouns*.*

EXAMPLES.—The boys who study will improve.

What is the Subject of this Sentence?

What boys will improve?

The words "who study" constitute what?

Why do you call "who study" a Sentence?

What is the Subject of that Sentence?

What is the Predicate?

What word introduces the Sentence?—Then

What sort of word is "who?"

What is the Antecedent of that Pronoun?

What word does the Sentence "who studies" limit?—Then

What sort of Sentence is "who studies?"

2. Warner has read the book *which* I gave to him.

3. The book that I lost has been found.

4. The boy *whom* we met is my cousin.

What words are used as Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns?

The words *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that* and *what* are used as *Relative Pronouns*.

REMARK.—Who is changed to *whom* when put in the Objective Case.

The other Relative Pronouns have the same form in all the Cases.

REMARK.—The words *as* and *than* are sometimes used as Relative Pronouns.

As "Such *as* I have give I unto thee."

Than "We have more *than* heart could wish."

Let each pupil make a Sentence having a Relative Pronoun.

REMARK.—Relative Pronouns are used only in Adjective Sentences.

* By most authors the term "Relative" is applied to these Pronouns. "Conjunctive" is a more appropriate term, as they always *introduce* Auxiliary Sentences. But pupils may use either term—as preferred by the teacher.

Who and *whom* are applied to intelligent beings.

The man *who* passed resembled the man *whom* we met.

Which and *what* relate to lower animals and to things.

The box that you saw contained the books which I bought.

John has not done what I required.

That relates alike to persons and to things.

REMARK 1.—Which is applied to a collective noun of persons, when the thought rests chiefly on the collections.

EXAMPLE.—The meeting which was large was quiet.

REMARK 2.—Which is often used as an Adjective.

EXAMPLE.—Which book do you prefer?

Interrogative Pronouns.

Remember—Some Pronouns are used in asking questions.

What is an Interrogative Pronoun?

Definition 60. A Pronoun used to ask a question is called an *Interrogative Pronoun*.

EXAMPLES.

1. Who *will show us any good?*

In this Sentence, what word asks the question?—Then

What sort of Pronoun is “*Who?*”—Why?

What is the Antecedent of “*Who?*”

The *Antecedent* of an *Interrogative Pronoun* is the word which answers the question.

EXAMPLES.

1. Who *says that?* John [says that].

2. Whom *did you call?* [I did call] William.

3. Which *do you prefer?* I prefer the best.

4. What *can compensate for loss of character?*

5. What *sought they thus afar?*

Name the proper *Antecedents* of these Interrogative Pronouns.

Let each pupil make a Sentence which shall contain an *Interrogative Pronoun*.

III.—ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Good *people* are great *people*.*What is the Subject of that Sentence?**What sort of people are great?**What, then, is the use of the word "good?"**Why do you call the word "good" an Adjective?*

2. "The good alone are great."

*Who are great?—Then**What is the Subject of this Sentence?**What sorts of words are used as Subjects of Sentences?**Is the word "good" a Noun?**If "good" is the Subject and not a Noun, what sort of word must it be?* [See p. 19.]*If it is the Subject and not a Noun, it must be a **Pro-noun****"The good alone are great."**For what Noun is the word "good" substituted?**If the word "good" qualifies "people" and is also used instead of "people," then what two offices does it perform in that Sentence?**If it "qualifies a Noun," it is therefore an **Adjective**.**If it is "used instead of a Noun," it is therefore a **Pro-noun**; and**If it represents the Noun which it qualifies, it is an **Ad-jective Pronoun**.**What is an Adjective Pronoun?**Definition 61. A word used to supply the place of a Noun which it qualifies is an **Adjective Pronoun**.*

EXAMPLES.

All "All that I have is thine."*Any* "Are there any here who can parse that word?"*Some* "Some said one thing and some another."*Such* "Such as I have give I unto thee."*Poor* "The poor ye have always with you."

What words are commonly used as Adjective Pronouns?

1. *All, any, other, some, such—few, many, none—this, that, these, those*, are often used as Adjective Pronouns.

2. By placing the word “the” before almost any Adjective, it *may* be used as a Substantive ;—and when it is so used, it becomes an *Adjective Pronoun*.

What are the Adjective Pronouns in the following Sentences?

1. I pity *all* who cannot see.
2. I will give all or any of *these* to you.
3. *One* who loves must often weep.
4. *Another* came and said, she is dead.
5. *Many* will attempt, *few* will succeed.
6. Those that seek me early shall find me.
7. Such find no comforter on earth.
8. He shares with none that glorious name.
9. Some would climb the highest hill, and others walk along the vale.

RECAPITULATION.

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
PRONOUNS ARE	<i>Personal.</i>	First— I, me.	We, us.
		Second— Thou, thee.	Ye, you.
		Third— { He, him. She, her. It, it. }	They, them.
	<i>Relative.</i>	{ Who, whom, that. Which, what, that. As, than.	
		{ Who, whom. Which, what.	
	<i>Interrogative.</i>	{ Who, whom. Which, what.	
		{ This, that, these, those. Each, either, neither, none. All, another, any, both, some, such. Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs, and many others.	

VERBS.



CHARLES *knocks* the ball vigorously.

It *goes* straight to Arthur.

Will *he* catch it ?

He *is* skillful at catching.

Eugene *is* learning how to play.

In the above Sentences—

What is the use of the word “*knocks*?”

What is the use of the word “*goes*?”

What is the use of the word “*catch*?”

What other word is used with “*catch*?”

What is the use of the word “*skillful*?”

What word assists “*skillful*” to declare something of “*he*?”

What declares something of, “*Eugene*?”

He *is* learning how to do what ?

We have seen (page 20) that

Words that declare something of persons and of things are called *Predicates*, and that every Predicate must have at least one *Verb*.

What is a Verb?

Definition 62. A word that *asserts* an *act*, *being*, or *state* of a person or of a thing is called a *Verb*.

CLASSIFICATION.

Verbs are used { as *Predicates of Sentences*,
as *Subsequents of Phrases*.

EXAMPLES.

Predicate Columbus *discovered* America.

Subsequent To *sleep*, perchance to *dream*.

Remember 1. Verbs used in Predicate are called *Finite Verbs*.

2. Verbs used as Subsequents of Phrases are called *Infinitive Verbs*.

Remember 3. Some Verbs assert *action*, others assert *being* or *state*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Action* Cora *creeps*.
William *studies* grammar.
2. *Being* God *exists*.
People *live*.
3. *State* Warner *sleeps*.

Remember 4. Some Verbs that assert action have *Objects* expressed—others have no *Objects*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *With Objects* William *studies* grammar.
Birds *build* nests.
2. *Without Objects* Birds *fly*.
Children *play*.

Then, how many classes of Verbs have we?

There are two sorts of Verbs— $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Transitive Verbs} \text{ and} \\ \textit{Intransitive Verbs}. \end{array} \right.$

What is a Transitive Verb?

Definition 63. A Verb that asserts an act which *passes over* to an *Object*, is called a *Transitive Verb*.

EXAMPLES.

1. Charles *knocks* the ball.
2. The king of shadows *loves* a shining mark.
3. *Him* from my childhood I *have known*.

Let each pupil make a Transitive Sentence.

What is an Intransitive Verb?

Definition 64. A Verb that has no *Object* is called an *Intransitive Verb*.

EXAMPLES.

1. We *have come* from the mountains.
2. Now *fades* the glimmering landscape on the sight.

Let each pupil make an Intransitive Sentence.

MODIFICATIONS.

Remember 5. Transitive Verbs that denote Action have two methods of representing the Action—

1. As done *by* its Subject.
2. As done *to* its Subject.

EXAMPLES.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. <i>By its Subject</i> | 1. Columbus discovered America. |
| | 2. Birds build nests. |
| 2. <i>To its Subject</i> | 3. America was discovered. |
| | 4. Nests are built. |

Then, how are Transitive Verbs modified?

Transitive Verbs have two Voices— $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The } \textit{Active Voice} \text{ and} \\ \text{The } \textit{Passive Voice}. \end{array} \right.$

When is a Verb in the Active Voice?

Definition 65. A Verb that asserts an act done *by its Subject*, is in the *Active Voice*.

EXAMPLES.

1. William *assists* Warner.
2. Columbus discovered America.

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Active Voice.

When is a Verb in the Passive Voice?

Definition 66. A Verb that asserts an act *done to its Subject*, is in the *Passive Voice*.

EXAMPLES.

1. Warner *is assisted*.
2. America was discovered.

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Passive Voice.

Mode.

Remember 1. A Verb may simply *declare* an act or state.

2. It may declare the *possibility* of an act.

3. It may declare an act *conditionally*.

4. It may *command* an act; or,

5. It may constitute the *name* of an act.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Assert Absolutely* We *study* grammar
2. " *Possibility* We *may* study grammar.
3. " *Conditionally* If we *study* grammar.
4. " *Command* *Study* grammar.
5. *Unlimited by a Subject* To *study* grammar.

Then, how many Methods or Modes have we of asserting an act?

There are *five Modes*—

{	1. The <i>Indicative Mode</i> .
	2. The <i>Potential Mode</i> .
	3. The <i>Subjunctive Mode</i> .
	4. The <i>Imperative Mode</i> ; and
	5. The <i>Infinitive Mode</i> .

Indicative Mode.

When is a Verb in the Indicative Mode?

Definition 67. A Verb that simply *declares* an act, or state, is in the *Indicative Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

Declare 1. Birds *fly*.

2. Arthur catches the ball.

Ask 3. *Do* birds *fly*?

4. *Did* Arthur catch the ball?

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Indicative Mode.

Potential Mode.

When is a Verb in the Potential Mode?

Definition 68. A Verb indicating *power, probability, will, or obligation*, is in the *Potential Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Obligation* Mary *should* study.
2. *Power* Cora *can* learn.
3. *Probability* Willie *may* go.
4. *Will* Clara *shall* read.

OBSERVATION.—Verbs in the Indicative and in the Potential Modes may be used in Interrogative Sentences.

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Potential Mode.

Subjunctive Mode.

When is a Verb in the Subjunctive Mode?

Definition 69. A Verb asserting a *conditional* fact or event, is in the *Subjunctive Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Were* I known.
2. *If* we believed.

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Subjunctive Mode.

Imperative Mode.

When is a Verb in the Imperative Mode?

Definition 70. A Verb used to *command* or to *entreat*, is in the *Imperative Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

1. "Go thou into all the world."
2. "Come unto me all ye that labor."

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Imperative Mode.

Infinitive Mode.

When is a Verb in the Infinitive Mode?

Definition 71. A Verb used as the Object of the Preposition *to*, is in the *Infinitive Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

1. To *study*—to *play*—to *recite*.
2. I love to *study*.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall have an Infinitive Phrase.

NOTE.—The Infinitive Mode is so called because the Verb is *not limited* by a Subject.

EXERCISES.

Let the class turn to page 22 and

1. Mention the Verb in each Sentence.
2. Tell the Mode of each Verb.

Tense.

Remember—The different *times* in which acts are performed are indicated—sometimes by *Adverbs* of time, and sometimes by changes in the *form* of the Verb; and often *both* methods are employed.

EXAMPLES.

1. *By Adverbs* Study *now*—Study *to-morrow*.
2. *By change of Verb* I study—I studied.
I *shall* study—I *have* studied.
3. *By both Methods* I write *now*—I *wrote* yesterday.
I *shall* write *to-morrow*.
I *have* written *often*.

Remember—Changes in the form of Verbs to denote distinctions of *time* are called Modifications of *Tense*.

What is Tense?

Definition 72. *Tense* is a Modification of Verbs to denote *distinctions of time*.

EXAMPLES.

I	write.	John	studies.
I	have written.	John	has studied.
I	wrote.	John	studied.
I	had written.	John	had studied.
I shall	write.	John will	study.
I shall	have written.	John will	have studied.

How many Tenses have Verbs?

Verbs in the Indicative Mode have *Six Tenses*:

{	The <i>Prior Past Tense</i> .
	The <i>Past Tense</i> .
	The <i>Prior Present Tense</i> .
	The <i>Present Tense</i> .
	The <i>Prior Future Tense</i> , and
{	The <i>Future Tense</i> .

When is a Verb in the Prior Past Tense?

Definition 73. The *Prior Past Tense* denotes time *past before some other past time*.

EXAMPLES

1. I *had* gone—We had recited.
2. You *had* seen—Hadst thou recited?
3. John *had* loved—Class had been dismissed.

How can you tell, by its form, when a Verb is in the Prior Past Tense?

In the Prior Past Tense—Indicative—the Auxiliary Verb *had* is placed *before a Participle* in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *had* studied geography.
2. You *had* loved the teacher.
3. Mary *had* visited us.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Prior Past Tense*.

When is a Verb in the Past Tense?

Definition 74. The *Past Tense* denotes time absolutely past, without reference to any other time.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *went*—We *studied* grammar.
2. You *saw*—Thou *lovedst* truth.
3. John *loved*—Emma *sang*.

How can you tell, by its form, when a Verb is in the Past Tense?

In Verbs called *Regular*, the suffix “*d*,” or “*ed*,” is added to the Verb to indicate Past Tense.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *studied*.
2. You *loved*.
3. Mary *visited*.

Make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Past Tense.

OBSERVATION.—In Irregular Verbs the Past Tense is formed variously. [See List of Irregular Verbs, page 115.]

When is a Verb in the Prior Present Tense?

The *Prior Present Tense* denotes time *past*, but in a period *reaching to the present*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *have* studied grammar.
2. You *have* seen the eclipse.
3. John *has* loved.

How can you tell when a Verb is in the Prior Present Tense?

In the Prior Present Tense, the Auxiliary Verb *has*, or *have*, is placed *before a Participle* in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *have* studied geography.
2. You *have* loved your teacher.
3. Mary *has* visited us.

Make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Prior Present Tense.

When is a Verb in the Present Tense?

Definition 75. The *Present Tense* denotes *present time*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I go.
2. You see.
3. John loves.

How can you tell, by its form, when a Verb is in the Present Tense?

The *simplest form* of the Verb is used in the Present Tense.

EXAMPLES.

1. I study.
2. You love.
3. Mary visits.

Let each pupil make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Present Tense*.

When is a Verb in the Prior Future Tense?

Definition 76. The *Prior Future Tense* denotes time that will be *past at a future time*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *shall have gone*.
2. You *will have seen*.
3. John *will have loved*.

How can you tell, by its form, when a Verb is in the Prior Future Tense?

In the Prior Future Tense, the Auxiliary Verbs *shall* or *will*, and *have*, are placed before a *Participle in Predicate*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *shall have studied*.
2. You *will have loved*.
3. Mary *will have visited*.

Make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Prior Future Tense*.

When is a Verb in the Future Tense?

Definition 77. The *Future Tense* denotes time *future*, with reference only to the present.

EXAMPLES.

1. I shall go.
2. You will see.
3. John will love.

How can you tell, by its form, when a Verb is in the Future Tense?

To form the Future Tense, we place the Auxiliary Verbs *shall* or *will* before another Verb in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *shall* study.
2. You *will* love.
3. Mary *will* visit.

Make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Future Tense.

How many Tenses has the Potential Mode?

The Potential Mode has *four* Tenses:

The *Prior Past Tense*.

The *Past Tense*.

The *Prior Present Tense*, and

The *Present Tense*.

What are the Signs of the Prior Past Tense, Potential?

The Signs of the Prior Past Tense are—

Might have —, *Should have* —,

Could have —, *Would have* —,

placed before a *Participle in Predicate*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *might have* gone.
2. You *could have* seen.
3. John *should have* loved.
4. We *would have* studied.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Prior Past Tense*, Potential Mode.

What are the Signs of the Past Tense, Potential?

The Signs of the Past Tense are—

Might —,

Would —,

Could —,

Should —,

placed before another Verb in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. John *would* love.
2. Pupils *should* study.
3. I *might* go.
4. You *could* see.

What are the Signs of the Prior Present Tense, Potential?

The Signs of the *Prior Present* Tense are—

May have —,

Shall have —,

Can have —,

Must have —,

Will have —,

placed before a *Participle in Predicate*.

EXAMPLES.

1. John *may have* gone.
2. You *can have* seen.
3. I *will have* loved.
4. Pupils *shall have* studied.
5. We *must have* visited.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Prior Present Tense, Potential Mode.*

What are the Signs of the Present Tense, Potential?

The *Signs* of the *Present Tense*, Potential, are—

May —,

Can —,

Must —,

Will — (First Person),

Shall — (Second and Third Persons),

placed before another Verb in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

1. I *may* go.
2. You *can* see.
3. "I *will* drown:—"
4. No one *shall* help me."
5. We *must* study.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Present Tense*, Potential Mode.

How many Tenses has the Subjunctive Mode?

The Subjunctive Mode has *two* Tenses—

The *Past* and

The *Present*.

EXAMPLES.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. <i>Past</i> | 1. If I went. |
| | 2. Though John saw. |
| 2. <i>Present</i> | 3. If you visit. |
| | 4. Unless thou repent. |

What are the Tense Signs of the Subjunctive Mode?

There are *no Signs* of the Tenses of the *Subjunctive Mode*; but the Conjunctions *if, though, unless*, are commonly placed before Verbs in the Subjunctive Examples. [See above.]

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Subjunctive Mode*.

How many Tenses has the Imperative Mode?

The Imperative Mode has but one Tense—

The *Present*.

EXAMPLES.

Go thou. *Be* loved.

What is the Tense Sign of the Imperative Mode?

The Imperative Mode has *no Tense Sign*.

Observe—The *command* is always *present*—but the *performance* of the act commanded is *future*.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the *Imperative Mode*.

How many Tenses has the Infinitive Mode?

The Infinitive Mode has *two* Tenses—

The *Prior Present Tense* and

The *Present Tense*.

EXAMPLES.

Prior Present To have gone.

To have loved.

Present To go.

To study.

Observe—The Infinitive Verb is *never used in Predicate*. It is used as a Subsequent of an *Infinitive Phrase*.

Let each pupil *make* a Sentence that shall contain an *Infinitive Phrase*.

EXERCISES.

I. In the following Sentences—

Mention the Verbs in the Indicative Mode.

Mention the Verbs in the Potential Mode.

Mention the Verbs in the Subjunctive Mode.

Mention the Verbs in the Imperative Mode.

Mention the Verbs in the Infinitive Mode.

1. "Ah, who can tell how hard it is to climb
2. The steep where Fame's proud temple shines afar!"
3. "Touch not the mountain lest ye be consumed."
4. "If a body meet a body coming through the rye,
5. And a body kiss a body need a body cry."
6. "What thou dost not know, thou canst not tell.
7. Man cannot cover what God would reveal.
8. Here I stand and speak what I do know.
9. Seek not to know what is improper for thee
10. I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke "

Now mention the *Tense* of each Verb.

PARTICIPLES.

Remember—Verbs may become Participles by certain changes in their forms.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Verbs</i>	Write,	see,	feel,	love,	sing,	be.
<i>Participles</i> . . .	Writing,	seeing,	feeling,	loving,	singing,	being.
	Written,	seen,	felt,	loved,	sung,	been.

What is a Participle?

Definition 78. A *Participle* is a word derived from a Verb, but used for some other “part of speech.”

How many sorts of Participles have we?

Participles are *Simple* and *Compound*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Simple</i>	Writing,	written.
	Seeing,	seen.
<i>Compound</i>	Having written,	being written.
	Having seen,	being seen.

What is a Simple Participle?

Definition 79. A single word derived from a Verb is called a *Simple Participle*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Surging* “The surging billows, and the gamboling
2. *Crouching* Storms came, crouching, to his feet.”
3. *Crushed* “Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.”

What is a Compound Participle?

Definition 80. A *Compound Participle* consists of a Simple Participle, added to the Auxiliary Participles “being,” or “having,” or “having been.”

EXAMPLES.

<i>Simple</i>	{ Loving.	{ Seeing.
	{ Loved.	{ Seen.
<i>Compound</i> . . .	{ Being loved.	{ Being seen.
	{ Having loved.	{ Having seen.
	{ Having been loved.	{ Having been seen.
	{ Having been loving.	{ Having been seeing.

How are Simple Participles distinguished?

There are two sorts of Simple Participles—

The *Present Participle* and

The *Past Participle*.

EXAMPLES.

Present Being, seeing, loving, turning.

Past Been, seen, loved, turned.

What is a Present Participle?

Definition 81. A Participle which ends in *ing* is called a *Present Participle*.

EXAMPLES.

Verb Sleep, sing, read, laugh.

Present Participle . . . Sleeping, singing, reading, laughing.

What is a Past Participle?

Definition 82. A Participle that ends in *d*, or *ed*, is called a *Past Participle*.

EXAMPLES.

Verb Love, visit, turn, study.

Past Participle . . . Loved, visited, turned, studied.

Observe 1. The Past Participle of *Irregular Verbs* is variously formed.

2. The Participle does not always indicate the *time* expressed by it.

3. Participles have no distinct Etymological character. They find a place in all the "parts of speech"—being used as

1. *Nouns*.

4. *Prepositions*.

2. *Adjectives*.

5. *Conjunctions*.

3. *Adverbs*.

6. *Exclamations*.

7. In *Predicate* with Auxiliary Verbs.

EXAMPLES.

1. As a *Noun* *Singing* is a pleasing exercise.

2. As an *Adjective* A *loving* friend.

3. As an *Adverb* 'Tis *passing* strange.

4. As a *Preposition* I heard nothing concerning it.
I heard nothing about it.
5. As a *Conjunction* Seeing we cannot agree, we will separate.
Because we cannot agree.
6. As an *Exclamation* Shocking!
7. As *Leader of a Phrase* . Scaling yonder peak.
8. In *Predicate* Cora is sleeping.

Conjugation of Verbs.

Remember—To Conjugate a Verb is to give its various forms, as used in the different *Voices, Modes, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons.*

How are Verbs varied to denote these various modifications?

Some Verbs are varied by *adding letters* or *syllables* to the Radical;* others, by the use of *different Radicals*.

EXAMPLES.

By same Radical Love, loved. Turn, turned.
By different Radicals See, saw. Be, was.

Then how many Conjugations have Verbs?

Verbs have two Conjugations—

Regular Conjugation and Irregular Conjugation.

What Verbs are Regular in their Conjugations?

Definition 83. Verbs are called *Regular* whose *Past Tense* is formed by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the Radical.

EXAMPLES.

Present Love, hate, wish, saw, turn.
Past Loved, hated, wished, sawed, turned.

What Verbs are Irregular in their Conjugations?

Definition 84. A Verb is called *Irregular* whose Past Tense is *not* formed by the addition of *d* or *ed*.

* By the term "*Radical*" is meant the simplest form of the Verb—from which other forms are made by the use of *Suffixes*.

EXAMPLES.

Present Be, see, feel, go, do, set, sit.

Past Was, saw, felt, went, did, set, sat.

Remember—Some Verbs are not used in all the Modes and Tenses, and are therefore *Defective* in Conjugation.

What is a Defective Verb?

Definition 85. A Verb that is *not used in all the Modes and Tenses*, is called a *Defective Verb*.

Which are the Defective Verbs?

The following Verbs are called Defective :

Present . . Can, may, must, ought, —, shall, will.

Past Could, might, —, ought, quoth, should, would.

Remember—Some Verbs are placed before other Verbs or Participles, to determine the *Voice*, *Mode*, or *Tense*. Such Verbs are called *Auxiliary*.

What is an Auxiliary Verb?

Definition 86. A Verb *prefixed to another Verb*, or to a *Participle*, to distinguish its *Voice*, *Mode*, or *Tense*, is an *Auxiliary Verb*.

Which are the Auxiliary Verbs?

1. The following Verbs are *always* Auxiliary—and are generally used to denote the *Potential Mode* :

Present Can, may, must, shall.

Past Could, might, —, should.

2. And these are sometimes *Auxiliary*, and sometimes *Principal* Verbs. They generally denote the *Voice*, or the *Tense*, or both :

Present Am, be, do, have, will.

Past Was, was, did, had, would.

Remember—In each Tense—

No variations in the form of any English Verbs occur—except of the first Verb in Predicate—and in that only in the Third Person Singular

Present and Prior Present Tenses and in the Second Singular Solemn Style.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person.</i>	I love,	We love,
<i>Second Person.</i>	{ Thou lovest, You love,	{ Ye love, You love,
<i>Third Person.</i>	He loves.*	They love.

Remember—The following Auxiliaries are followed by a *Verb in Predicate* :

Present Can, do, may, must, shall, will.

Past Could, did, might, —, should, would.

Remember—The following Auxiliaries are followed by a *Participle in Predicate* :

Present Am, be, have.

Past Was, was, had.

What is a Principal Verb ?

Definition 87. The Verb in Predicate that makes the *principal assertion* is called a *Principal Verb*.

Remember—*Participles*, like Verbs, may be *Principal* or *Auxiliary*.

Remember—The *last Word* in Predicate—*Verb* or *Participle* †—makes the *principal assertion*, and is the *Principal Word*. Other Verbs and Participles are *Auxiliary*—denoting *Mode*, *Tense*, or *Voice*.

EXAMPLES.

1. I love.

Here the single Verb in Predicate simply asserts an act.

2. I loved.

Here the same act is asserted, with the additional idea of *Past Time*, indicated by the termination “*d.*”

3. I *have* loved.

Here the same act is asserted, with the additional idea that the *past act* was *in a period of time reaching to the present*—indicated by the Auxiliary Verb “*have.*”

* Or *loveth*—an ancient form now nearly obsolete.

† The last word in *Predicate* may also be an Adjective, a Noun, or a Pronoun.
[See page 21.]

4. *I may have loved.*

Here “loved” remains the Principal word in Predicate modified by “have,” an Auxiliary indicating *time*, and the Auxiliary “may,” indicating *Mode*;—by which we assert *not an act* denoted by the word “loved,” but the *possibility* of the act.

The following TABLES exhibit the various offices of the Auxiliary Verbs. Any Principal Verb or its Participle may be inserted to fill the blank line.

FORM FOR THE ACTIVE VOICE.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Auxiliary Words.</i>		<i>Principal.</i>	
	Auxiliary Verbs.	Auxiliary Verbs.	Principal Verbs.	Participial Endings.
I, Ye, We, They. <i>(The First Person Singular, and First, Second and Third Persons Plural, require the same form of the Verb.)</i>	{	do	—	
		have	—	d.
		did	—	
		had	—	d.
	{	shall *	—	
		shall *	have	— d.
		may	—	
		may	have	— d.
		might	—	
		might	have	— d.
He, She, It, John. <i>(The Third Person Singular has a peculiar form for the Present Tense.)</i>	{	does	—	
		has	—	d.
		did	—	
		had	—	d.
	{	will	—	
		will *	have	— d.
		may	—	
		may	have	— d.
		might	—	
		might	have	— d.

* “Will” takes the place of “shall” when the Subject is in the *Second* or in the *Third* Person.

FORM FOR THE PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Auxiliary Words.</i>			<i>Principal.*</i>
	<i>Modz.</i>	<i>Tense.</i>	<i>Voice.</i>	
I	{		am	<i>loved.</i> seen. felt. kept.
		have	been	
			was	
		had	been	
		shall	be	
		shall	have been	
		may	be	
		may	have been	
We	{		are	<i>loved.</i> seen. felt. kept.
		have	been	
			were	
		had	been	
		shall	be	
		shall	have been	
		may	be	
		may	have been	
John	{		is	<i>loved.</i> seen. felt. kept.
		has	been	
			was	
		had	been	
		will	be	
		will	have been	
		may	be	
		may	have been	
	{	might	be	
		might	have been	

* The Principal word when preceded by the Verb "be," in Predicate, must be a *Participle*, an Adjective, a Noun, or a Pronoun. [See page 21.]

Let this Exercise be repeated, using *other Participles* in the place of the word "loved."

Remember 1. If the *Past Participle* is used after the Verb "be," the *Voice* is *Passive*.

2. If the *Present Participle* is used, the *Voice* is *Active*.

REGULAR CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

Remember—Verbs that are **REGULAR** in their **CONJUGATION** are all varied in the *same manner*, *i. e.*, by the same changes of form. Hence, if we can conjugate one Regular Verb properly, we have learned how to conjugate all of them.

The following are some of the Regular Verbs in common use :

<i>Verb.</i>		<i>Participle.</i>	
<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Aid,	aided,	aiding,	aided.
Believe,	believed,	believing,	believed.
Climb,	climbed,	climbing,	climbed.
Dart,	darted,	darting,	darted.
End,	ended,	ending,	ended.
Fold,	folded,	folding,	folded.
Grant,	granted,	granting,	granted.
Hunt,	hunted,	hunting,	hunted.
Injure,	injured,	injuring,	injured.
Judge,	judged,	judging,	judged.
Kill,	killed,	killing,	killed.
Love,	loved,	loving,	loved.
Mourn,	mourned,	mourning,	mourned.
Nourish,	nourished,	nourishing,	nourished.
Open,	opened,	opening,	opened.

Remember 1. All the forms of *Regular Verbs* are derived from the *Present*. [See above.]

2. All the forms of *Irregular Verbs* are derived from the *Present*, the *Past*, or the *Past Participle*. These are called the *Principal Parts* of the Verb, and a Verb is said to be conjugated when these Parts are given.

EXAMPLES.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
<i>Regular</i>	{ Aid,	aided,	aided.
	{ Grant,	granted,	granted.
<i>Irregular . . .</i>	{ See,	saw,	seen.
	{ Write,	wrote,	written.

The following TABLES exhibit the Regular Variations of form or of *Auxiliaries* for the different *Modes* and *Tenses*, to correspond with the different *Persons* and *Numbers* of their Subjects.

- Remember* 1. A Verb must be in the *Singular* form when its Subject is *Singular*.
2. A Verb must be in the *Plural* form when its Subject is *Plural*. But the terms “*Singular*” and “*Plural*,” as applied to Verbs, mean *only that its form is made to correspond to the Number of its Subject*.
3. The simplest form of the Verb is adapted to the *Active Voice, Indicative Mode, Present Tense, First Person, Singular Number* : as, I love.

For other Modifications, the Verbs are regularly varied according to the following method :

PARADIGM OF THE VERB *LOVE*.*Active Voice.*

When is a Verb in the Active Voice? [See p. 91.]

Indicative Mode.

When is a Verb in the Indicative Mode? [See p. 92.]

Present Tense.

When is a Verb in the Present Tense? [See p. 97.]

	<i>Singular Number.</i>	<i>Plural Number.</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I love.	We love.
<i>Second Person*</i>	{ Thou lovest.	{ Ye love.
	{ You love.	{ You love.
<i>Third Person</i>	He loves.	They love.

* The Second Person has two forms—the Ancient or *Solemn* style and the Modern or *Common* style.

Remember—The Auxiliary Verb *do* may be placed before the Principal Verb when we wish to make the assertion *emphatic*.

Now repeat the above, inserting the word *do* before the Verb.

Prior Present Tense.

When is a Verb in the Prior Present Tense? [See p. 96.]

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>	
1	I have loved.	We	have loved.
2	{ Thou hast loved.	{ Ye	have loved.
	{ You have loved.	{ You	have loved.
3	He has loved.	They	have loved.

What is the Tense Sign for the Prior Present?

“Have” is the sign of the *Prior Present Tense* [see p. 96], and the Auxiliary “*have*” precedes a *Participle* in Predicate [see p. 96].

Past Tense.

When is a Verb in the Past Tense? [See p. 96.]

Remember—The *Past Tense* is formed from the *Present*, by the addition of *d* or *ed*.

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>	
1	I loved.	We	loved.
2	{ Thou lovedst.	{ Ye	loved.
	{ You loved.	{ You	loved.
3	He loved.	They	loved.

Remember—For the *Past Tense*, the Auxiliary Verb *did* may be placed before the *Present form* of a Principal Verb, when we wish to make the assertion *emphatic*: as, I *did go* for I *went*.

Repeat the above, inserting the Auxiliary Verb *did* before the Principal Verb.

Prior Past Tense.

When is a Verb in the Prior Past Tense? [See p. 95.]

Remember—The Auxiliary Verb *had*, placed before the Past Participle of a Principal Verb, forms the *Prior Past Tense*.

Thus:

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>
1	I had loved.	We had loved.
2	{ Thou hadst loved.	{ Ye had loved.
	{ You had loved.	{ You had loved.
3	He had loved.	They had loved.

Future Tense.

When is a Verb in the Future Tense? [See p. 98.]

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>
1	I shall love.	We shall love.
2	{ Thou wilt love.	{ Ye will love.
	{ You will love.	{ You will love.
3	He will love.	They will love.

Prior Future Tense.

When is a Verb in the Prior Future Tense? [See p. 97.]

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>
1	I shall have loved.	We shall have loved.
2	{ Thou wilt have loved.	{ Ye will have loved.
	{ You will have loved.	{ You will have loved.
3	He will have loved.	They will have loved.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—Classes of small scholars will learn the Conjugations most easily by repeating the lessons *in concert*. It is well to remind the pupils that the only variations in form of a Regular Verb are for the Second Person Singular Solemn Style, and for the Third Person Singular, Present Tense.

Potential Mode.

When is a Verb in the Potential Mode? [See p. 93.]

What Auxiliary Verbs constitute signs of the Potential Mode? [See pp. 98-9.]

Present Tense.

Singular Number.

Plural Number.

	Person.	Mode Sign.	Tense Sign.	Principal Verb or Participle.		Person.	Mode Sign.	Tense Sign.	Principal Verb or Participle.
1.	I	may		love.		We	may		love.
2.	{	Thou mayst		love.		{	Ye may		love.
		You may		love.			You may		love.
3.	He	may		love.		They	may		love.

Prior Present Tense.

1.	I	may	have loved.		We	may	have loved.
2.	{	Thou mayst	have loved.		{	Ye may	have loved.
		You may	have loved.			You may	have loved.
3.	He	may	have loved.		They	may	have loved.

Past Tense.

1.	I	might	love.		We	might	love.
2.	{	Thou mightst	love.		{	Ye might	love.
		You might	love.			You might	love.
3.	He	might	love.		They	might	love.

Prior Past Tense.

1.	I	might	have loved.		We	might	have loved.
2.	{	Thou mightst	have loved.		{	Ye might	have loved.
		You might	have loved.			You might	have loved.
3.	He	might	have loved.		They	might	have loved.

Remember—The Potential Mode has but four Tenses.

Subjunctive Mode.

When is a Verb in the Subjunctive Mode? [See p. 93.]

Present Tense.

<i>Singular Number.</i>		<i>Plural Number.</i>
1	If I love.	If we love.
2	{ If thou love.	{ If ye love.
	{ If you love.	{ If you love.
3	If he love.	If they love.

Past Tense.

1	If I loved.	If we loved.
2	{ If thou loved.	{ If ye loved.
	{ If you loved.	{ If you loved.
3	If he loved.	If they loved.

Remember—The Subjunctive Mode has but two Tenses.

Imperative Mode.

When is a Verb in the Imperative Mode? [See p. 93.]

Present Tense.

1	_____	_____
2	{ Love thou,	Love ye or you,
	{ or	or
	{ Do thou love.	Do ye or you love.
3	_____	_____

Remember—The Imperative Mode has but one Tense.

Infinitive Mode.

When is a Verb in the Infinitive Mode? [See p. 94.]

Present Tense To love.

Prior Present Tense To have loved.

Participles.

What is a Participle? [See p. 102.]

Present loving.

Past loved.

Compound Having loved.

Let the same Verb be conjugated with the addition of an *object*, repeated after each form of the Predicate. Thus, I love *cherries*—Thou lovest *cherries*, etc.

Thus conjugate other Verbs, from the Examples of Regular Verbs given on pp. 110-14—using the word *John* or some other name for the Third Person Singular, instead of “He,” and *people*, or some other Plural name, instead of “They.”

To the Transitive Verbs, appropriate objects may be added.

A lively *concert exercise* will soon render the class familiar with a correct REGULAR CONJUGATION.

IRREGULAR CONJUGATION.

Remember—Verbs whose Past Tense is not formed by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the Present, are called

Irregular Verbs.

Remember—Of the Irregular Verbs—

1. Some have but one form in all three Principal Parts.
2. Some have two forms; and
3. Some have three forms.

I. These have the same form for all the parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.*</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Beat,	beat,	beat, beaten.*	Set,	set,	set.
Beset,	beset,	beset.	Shed,	shed,	shed.
Burst,	burst,	burst.	Shred,	shred,	shred.
Bet,	bet,	bet.	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Cast,	cast,	cast.	Slit,	slit, R.	slit, R.
Cost,	cost,	cost.	Spit,	spit,	spit.
Cut,	cut,	cut.	Split,	split,	split.
Hit,	hit,	hit.	Spread,	spread,	spread.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.	Sweat,	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Knit,	knit, R.	knit, R.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Let,	let,	let.	Wed,	wed, R.	wed, R.
Put,	put,	put.	Wet,	wet, R.	wet, R.
Quit,	quit, R.	quit, R.	Whet,	whet, R.	whet, R.
Rid.	rid,	rid.			

* Some Verbs and Participles have two forms for the same Tense. Such Verbs are called *Redundant*. The latter form is generally obsolete. The letter “R” is placed to indicate that one of the forms is “Regular.”

II. These have the Past Tense and the Past Participle the same.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	Kneel,	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Bend,	bent,	bent.	Lay,	laid,	laid.
Bereave,	bereft, R.	bereft, R.	Lead,	led,	led.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Leave,	left,	left.
Bend,	bound,	bound.	Lend,	lent,	lent.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Light,	lit, R.	lit, R.
Blend,	blent, R.	blent, R.	Lose,	lost,	lost.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Make,	made,	made.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Mean,	meant,	meant.
Build,	built, R.	built, R.	Meet,	met,	met.
Burn,	burnt, R.	burnt, R.	Pay,	paid,	paid.
Buy,	bought,	bought.	Plead,	pled, R.	plead, R.
Catch,	caught,	caught.	Read,	read,	read,
Cling,	clung,	clung.	Reave,	reft, R.	reft, R.
Creep,	crept,	crept.	Rend,	rent,	rent.
Deal.	dealt,	dealt.	Ride,	rode,	rode
Dig,	dug, R.	dug, R.			ridden.
Dream,	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.	Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.	Say,	said,	said.
Feed,	fed,	fed.	Seek,	sought,	sought.
Feel,	felt,	felt.	Sell,	sold,	sold.
Fight,	fought,	fought.	Send,	sent,	sent.
Find,	found,	found.	Shine,	shone, R.	shone, R.
Flee,	fled,	fled.	Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Fling,	flung,	flung.	Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.	Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk,
Gild,	gilt, R.	gilt, R.		shrank,	shrunk,
Gird,	girt, R.	girt, R.	Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Grind,	ground,	ground.	Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Hang,	hung, R.	hung, R.	Sit,	sat,	sat.
Have,	had,	had.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Hear,	heard,	heard.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Hold,	held,	held.	Slink,	slunk, slank,	slunk.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Speed,	sped,	sped.	String,	strung, R.	strung, R.
Spend,	spent,	spent.	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Spill,	spilt, R.	spilt, R.	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Spin,	spun,	spun.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Spring,	sprung,	sprung.	Tell,	told,	told.
	sprang,		Think,	thought,	thought.
Stand,	stood,	stood.	Wake,	woke,	woke.
Stay,	staid,	staid.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.	Win,	won,	won.
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Stink,	stank,	stunk.	Work,	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Strike,	struck,	struck,	Wring,	wrung, R.	wrung, R.
		stricken.			

III. These have different forms for the Present, the Past, and the Past Participle.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Am,	was,	been.	Crow,	crew, R.	crowed.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Do,	did,	done.
Awake,	awoke, R.	awaked.	Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Bear,	bore, bare,	born.	Drink,	drank,	drunk,
Bear,	bore, bare,	borne.	Drive,	drove,	driven.
<i>to carry.</i>			Eat,	eat, ate,	eaten.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bidden, bid.	Fly,	flew,	flown.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.	Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten,
Break,	broke, brake,	broken.			forgot.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.	Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.	Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Cleave,	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.	Give,	gave,	given.
<i>to split.</i>			Go,	went,	gone,
Cleave,	clave, R.	cleaved.	Grave,	graved,	graven, R.
<i>to adhere.</i>			Grow,	grew,	grown.
Clothe,	clothed, clad, clad, R.		Heave,	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Come,	came,	come.	Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.	Sow,	sowed,	sown, R.
Know,	knew,	known.	Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken.
Lade,	laded,	laden, R.	Stave,	stove, R.	stove, R.
Lie,	lay,	lain.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Mow,	mowed,	mown, R.	Stride,	strode, strid,	stridden.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Strive,	strove,	striven.
Rive,	rived,	riven, R.	Strow,	strowed,	strown, R.
Rot,	rotted,	rotten, R.	Swear,	swore, sware,	sworn.
Run,	ran,	run.	Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, R.	Swim,	swam,	swum.
See,	saw,	seen.	Take,	took,	taken.
Seethe,	sod, R.	sodden, R.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.	Thrive,	throve, R.	thriven, R.
Shape,	shaped,	shapen, R.	Throw,	threw, R.	thrown, R.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, R.	Tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn, R.	Wake,	woke, R.	waked.
Show,	showed,	shown, R.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Slay,	slew,	slain.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Slide,	slid,	slidden, slid.	Write,	wrote,	written.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.			

IRREGULAR CONJUGATION.

PARADIGM OF THE VERB *BE*.

Remember—The Verb “*be*” is called a “*Neuter Verb*,” when used as a Principal Verb. When used as an Auxiliary and followed by a Past Participle of any Verb, it is the *sign* of the *Passive Voice* of that Verb. When used in Predicate, followed by an Adjective, a Noun, or a Pronoun, it is called a *copula*. It *couple*s the Attribute to the Subject.

1. Conjugated as a *Principal Verb*.

	<i>Present Form.</i>	<i>Past Form.</i>
<i>The Verb</i>	Be —.	Was —.
<i>The Participle</i>	Being —.	Been —.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	am —.	We are —.
2. {	Thou art —.	Ye are —.
	You are —.	You are —.
3. He	is —.	They are —.

Prior Present Tense.

1. I	have been —.	We have been —.
2. {	Thou hast been —.	Ye have been —.
	You have been —.	You have been —.
3. He	has been —.	They have been —.

Past Tense.

1. I	was —.	We were —.
2. {	Thou wast —.	Ye were —.
	You was or were —.	You were —.
3. He	was —.	They were —.

Prior Past Tense.

1. I	had been —.	We had been —.
2. {	Thou hadst been —.	Ye had been —.
	You had been —.	You had been —.
3. He	had been —.	They had been —.

Future Tense.

1. I	shall be —.	We shall be —.
2. {	Thou wilt be —.	Ye will be —.
	You will be —.	You will be —.
3. He	will be —.	They will be —.

Prior Future Tense.

1. I	shall have been —.	We shall have been —.
2. {	Thou wilt have been —.	Ye will have been —.
	You will have been —.	You will have been —.
3. He	will have been —.	They will have been —.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>						<i>Plural.</i>					
	2*	3	4	5	6		2	3	4	5	6
1.	I	may		be	—.	We	may		be	—.	
2.	{	Thou	mayst		be	—.	Ye	may		be	—.
		You	may		be	—.	You	may		be	—.
3.		He	may		be	—.	They	may		be	—.

Prior Present Tense.

1.	I	may	have been —.	We	may	have been —.	
2.	{	Thou	mayst	have been —.	Ye	may	have been —.
		You	may	have been —.	You	may	have been —.
3.		He	may	have been —.	They	may	have been —.

Past Tense.

1.	I	might	be	—.	We	might	be	—.	
2.	{	Thou mightst	be	—.	Ye	might	be	—.	
		You might	be	—.	You	might	be	—.	
3.		He	might	be	—.	They	might	be	—.

Prior Past Tense.

1.	I	might	have been	—.	We	might	have been	—.	
2.	{	Thou	mightst	have been	—.	Ye	might	have been	—.
		You	might	have been	—.	You	might	have been	—.
3.		He	might	have been	—.	They	might	have been	—.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

1.	If I	be	—.	If we	be	—.	
2.	{	If thou	be	—.	If ye	be	—.
		If you	be	—.	If you	be	—.
3.		If he	be	—.	If they	be	—.

* 2. The *Person* of the Subject.3. The *Mode Sign*.4. The *Tense Sign*.5. The *Voice Sign*.6. The place for the Participle of *any Verb*, or for an Adjective, a Noun, or a Pronoun in Predicate.

Past Tense.

- | | | | | |
|----|-------|-----------------|---------|---------|
| 1. | If I | were —. | If we | were —. |
| 2. | { | If thou wert —. | If ye | were —. |
| | | If you were —. | If you | were —. |
| 3. | If he | were —. | If they | were —. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- | | | | |
|----|---|---------------|--------------------|
| 2. | { | Be thou —. | Be ye or you —. |
| | | Do thou be —. | Do ye or you be —. |

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To be —.

Prior Present Tense.

To have been —.

PARTICIPLES.

Present Being —.*Past* Been —.*Compound* Having been —.

Now Conjugate the Passive Voice of *any* Verb, using the *same* words as Auxiliaries, before the *Past Participle* of a given Verb.

Remember—The Compound form of the Active Voice of any Verb is made by adding the Present Participle to the same Auxiliaries.

SYNOPSIS OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *COME*.*Indicative Mode.**(First Person Singular.)**Present* I come.*Prior Present* I have come.*Past* I came.*Prior Past* I had come.*Future* I shall come.*Prior Future* I shall have come.

Potential Mode.

<i>Present</i>	I may	come.
<i>Prior Present</i>	I may	have come.
<i>Past</i>	I might	come.
<i>Prior Past</i>	I might	have come.

Subjunctive Mode.

<i>Present</i>	If I come.
<i>Past</i>	If I came.

Imperative Mode.

(Second Person only.)

<i>Present</i>	Come thou, or Do thou come.
----------------------	-----------------------------

Infinitive Mode.

(Without Person and Number.)

<i>Present</i>	To	come.
<i>Prior Present</i>	To	have come.

Participles.

<i>Present</i>	Coming.
<i>Past</i>	Come.
<i>Compound</i>	Having come.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB *DO*.*Indicative Mode.*

(Second Person.)

<i>Present</i>	You	do	—.*
<i>Prior Present</i>	You	have done	—.†
<i>Past</i>	You	did	—.*
<i>Prior Past</i>	You	had done	—.†
<i>Future</i>	You will	do	—.*
<i>Prior Future</i>	You will	have done	—.†

Potential Mode.

<i>Present</i>	You can	do	—.*
<i>Prior Present</i>	You can	have done	—.†
<i>Past</i>	You could	do	—.*
<i>Prior Past</i>	You could	have done	—.†

*Subjunctive Mode.**Present* If you do —.**Past* If you did —.**Imperative Mode.**Present* Do you —, or Do you do —.†*Infinitive Mode.**Present* To do —.†*Prior Present* To have done —.†*Participles.**Present* Doing —.†*Past* Done —† (*not used Transitively*).*Compound* Having done —.†SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB *GO*.*Indicative Mode.**(Third Person Singular.)**Present* John goes.*Prior Present* John has gone.*Past* John went.*Prior Past* John had gone.*Future* John will go.*Prior Future* John will have gone.*(Repeat the other Modes.)*SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB *EAT*.*Indicative Mode.**(Third Person Plural.)**Present* People eat —.†*Prior Present* People have eaten —.†*Past* People ate —.†*Prior Past* People had eaten —.†*Future* People will eat —.†*Prior Future* People will have eaten —.†*(Repeat the other Modes.)*

* Supply any Verb as Principal Word in Predicate—"study"—"see."

† Supply an Object—as "it"—"something"—"nothing."

Remember—A few Verbs—mostly derived from Nouns—are used only in the form of the Third Person Singular, having the Pronoun “it” as their Subject.

Such Verbs are called

Unipersonal Verbs.

EXAMPLES.

It becomes.

It behooves.

It hails.

It rains.

It snows.

It seems.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupil give the *Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number* of the Verbs in the following Sentences :

1. Science *strengthens* mind.
2. *Do* you *see* the large ship traversing the ocean by the force of the wind ?
3. William *has visited* Europe.
4. *Have* we *exercised* discretion ?
5. I, John, *saw* these things.
6. *Did* Washington *secure* renown ?
7. Ye *had accomplished* purposes.
8. I *shall understand* you.
9. *Will* Warner *study* Greek ?
10. Thou *wilt not comprehend* it.
11. Ye *will have accomplished* much.
12. We *may receive* instruction.
13. *Canst* thou *guide* Arcturus ?
14. *Shall* William *accompany* us ?
15. I *will study* Greek.
16. They *are not appreciated*.
17. *Could* it *not be accomplished* ?
18. Mary *might have been misinformed*.
19. Wisdom *should be honored*.
20. Thou *canst not have been understood*.
21. Sevastopol *could not have been taken*.
22. Meteors *might have been seen*.
23. What *should have been done* ?
24. Who *can be trusted* ?
25. *Have* you *been reading* poetry ?
26. Cora *will be writing* letters.
27. Stephen *could not have been giving* attention.
28. *Might* Clara *have been admitted* ?
29. Boys *had been reciting* lessons.
30. We *will not be enslaved*.
31. Pupils *might not have been giving* attention.
32. Caroline *will have visited* Syria.
33. *Hear* me for my cause.
34. *Be silent*, that ye may hear.
35. *Bid* her *give* me new and glorious hopes.
36. The lamb thy riot *dooms to bleed* to-day,
Had he thy reason, *would* he skip and play ?
37. *Be* kind to thy mother, for, lo ! on her brow,
May traces of sorrow *be seen* ;
38. O well *mayst* thou *cherish* and *comfort* her now,
For loving and kind she *hath been*.
39. *Remember* thy mother—for thee *will* she *pray*,
As long as God *giveth* her breath ;
40. With accents of kindness, then *cheer* her lone way
E'en to the dark valley of death.

ADJECTIVES.

Lucy has three little tamed rabbits.



2. *How many rabbits has Lucy?*

3. *Are they wild rabbits?*

4. *Are they large rabbits?*

Are they all her rabbits?

For what did I use the word "three?"

For what did I use the word "little?"

What is the use of the word "tamed?"

What is the use of the word "her?"

Remember—Words that describe things—telling *what*, *how many*, *whose* or *what kinds* of persons or things, are called *Adjectives*.

What is an Adjective?

Definition 88. An Adjective is a word used to limit the meaning of a Noun or of a Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Those rabbits are Lucy's pets.*

2. *One rabbit is black.*

3. *Lucy's good, loving brother gave them to her.*

4. *The smallest rabbit sits erect.*

How may we know when a word is Adjective?

Whenever a word describes or in any manner limits the meaning of a Noun or of a Pronoun, it is Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—*Rabbit—the rabbit—one rabbit—Lucy's rabbit—little rabbit—young rabbit—tamed rabbit—whose rabbit?*

Classification of Adjectives.

Remember 1. Some Adjectives tell us *what kind* of things are spoken of—*Good, bad, sweet, sour, lovely.*

2. Others tell us *what things, how many* or *whose* things, without denoting the quality—*The, this, that, former, latter, my, his, man's, boy's, whose. One, two, many, few, second.*

Remember 3. Others tell us the *condition* or *state* of the things—
Loving, loved, devoted, hated, feared. Then—

How many sorts of Adjectives have we?

There are three sorts of Adjectives: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{Qualifying Adjectives.} \\ 2. \text{Specifying Adjectives.} \\ 3. \text{Verbal Adjectives} \end{array} \right.$

Qualifying Adjectives.

What is a Qualifying Adjective?

Definition 89. An Adjective which denotes the *quality* or *kind* of things mentioned, is called a *Qualifying Adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Amiable* Emma has an amiable disposition.
 2. *Better* Wisdom is better than rubies.
 3. *Cold* Cold is thy brow, my son.
 4. *Light* Our light afflictions are but blessings.
 5. *Safe* Education is a safe investment.
-
6. Little children weep.
 7. Larger children sing.
 8. Good students improve.
 9. Wise men think.
 10. Foolish men talk.

Why do we call "little" a Qualifying Adjective?

How does "foolish" describe "men?"

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing *one* or *more* of the following words:

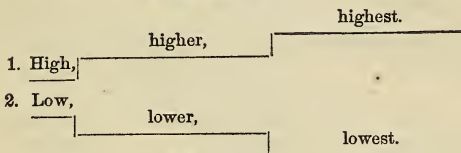
Amiable.	Bold.	Calm.	Dear.
Enviably.	Frail.	Good.	Hard.
Indolent.	Jealous.	Kind.	Loud.
Meek.	New.	Old.	Pure.
Quiet.	Ripe.	Sweet.	Tall.
Unruly.	Vile.	Wild.	Young.

Modification of Adjectives.

Remember—Most Qualifying Adjectives express, by variations in form, different degrees of quality. Hence,

Remember—Some Adjectives are varied in form to denote *Comparison*.

EXAMPLES.



Definition 90. The *Positive Degree* expresses quality in its simplest form.

EXAMPLES.—High—blue—salt—large—pure—rich—good—glimmering.

Definition 91. The *Comparative Degree* expresses an increase or a decrease of the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding *er*, or by prefixing the words *more* or *less*, to the form of the Positive.

EXAMPLES.—1. Larger—purer—richer—*more* common—less objectionable.

2. “*Richer* by far is the heart’s adoration.”

Definition 92. The *Superlative Degree* expresses the greatest increase or decrease of the quality of the Adjective.

It is commonly formed by adding *est*, or by prefixing the words *most* or *least*, to the form of the Positive.

EXAMPLES.—1. Largest—purest—*most* ungrateful—smallest—uppermost.

2. “The *purest* treasure mortal times afford
Is—*spotless* reputation.”

OBSERVATION.—Comparison descending, is expressed by prefixing the words *less* and *least* to the Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—Wise, *less* wise, *least* wise—ambitious, *less* ambitious, *least* ambitious.

OBSERVATION.—Most Adjectives of two or more syllables are compared by prefixing the words *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, to the Positive.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Careful,	<i>more</i> careful,	<i>most</i> careful.
Careful,	<i>less</i> careful,	<i>least</i> careful.

OBSERVATION.—Some Adjectives may be compared by either method specified above.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Remote,	remoter,	remotest.
Remote,	<i>more</i> remote,	<i>most</i> remote.

Irregular Comparison.

Some Adjectives are irregular in comparison.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Compar.</i>	<i>Super.</i>	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Compar.</i>	<i>Super.</i>
Good,	better,	best.	Many,	more,	most.
Bad,	worse,	worst.	Much,	more,	most.
Little,	less,	least.	Near,	nearer,	nearest

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Far,	{ farther, further,	farthest. furthestmost.
Old,	{ older, elder,	oldest. eldest.

Remember—Not all Qualifying Adjectives can be compared.

EXAMPLES.—Round—square—triangular—infinite.

Specifying Adjectives.

What is a Specifying Adjective?

Definition 93. An Adjective that *limits* or *specifies* the things mentioned, without denoting a quality, is called a *Specifying Adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

A "Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note."

An "An old man found a rude boy."

The "Thou art the man."

One "One example is better than two precepts."

Your "Ye knew your duty, but ye did it not."

NOTE.—The three Adjectives "A," "An," and "The," are by some grammarians separated from the other Adjectives and called *Articles*. Still they are a sort of Specifying Adjective.

In what different methods may an Adjective specify?

Adjectives specify—1. By simply *pointing out* things; as,
This book, thou art *the* man.

2. By denoting relation of *ownership, adaptation, or origin*; as, *My* book, *boy's* caps, *Watson's* Speller.

3. By denoting *number, definite or indefinite*; as, *One* book, the *first* class, *many* men.

Then how many sorts of Specifying Adjectives have we?

We have three classes of Specifying Adjectives—

1. *Pure Specifying Adjectives.*
2. *Numeral Specifying Adjectives.*
3. *Possessive Specifying Adjectives.*

Pure Specifying Adjectives.

What is a Pure Specifying Adjective?

Definition 94. An Adjective used only to point out, or designate things, is called a *Pure Specifying Adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

The The boy drives the hoop.

That That book is mine. *This* book is yours.

Next The next class will soon recite.

Such Such shames are common.

Same You may repeat the same exercise.

Remember—Adjectives derived from Proper Nouns are called *Proper Adjectives*.

EXAMPLES.—American, French, Grecian, Chinese.

Let each pupil make a Sentence which shall contain one of the following Pure Specifying Adjectives, and place the Sentence in Diagram :

A ——. The ——. This ——. That ——. These ——.
 Those ——. Next ——. French ——. German ——.

Numeral Adjectives.

1. *One* man drives *two* horses.
2. The *third* boy answered the *first* question.
3. A *few* bright boys are better than *many* dull ones.

Why do we call "one" an Adjective?

How does it describe "man?"

How does "third" describe "boy?"

How does "few" describe "boys?"

Remember—Adjectives that tell *how many* things are spoken of, are called *Numeral Adjectives*.

What is a Numeral Adjective?

Definition 95. A *Numeral Adjective* is a word used to denote number.

EXAMPLES.

1. A boy has solved *ten* problems.
2. And the *fourth* angel sounded.
3. A *threefold* cord is not quickly broken.
4. *Many* men have *many* minds.

OBSERVATION 1.—Numeral Adjectives may be—

Cardinal.—One—two—three—four.

Ordinal.—First—second—third—fourth.

Multiplicative.—Single—double—quadruple.

Indefinite.—Few—many—some (denoting number).

OBSERVATION 2.—*A* and *an*, when they denote number, are to be classed as Numeral Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Not *a* drum was heard, nor a funeral note.”

Not *one* drum was heard.

2. “Not *an* instance is on record.”

Not *one* instance is on record.

Let each pupil make a Sentence which shall contain one or more of the following Numeral Adjectives, and place each Sentence in Diagram :

One,	four,	seven,	ten,	one hundred.
Second,	fifth,	tenth,	twentieth,	thousandth.
Several,	many,	some,	few,	tenfold.

Possessive Specifying Adjectives.

1. *My* father has sold *his* farm.

2. *John's* father bought a *Webster's* Dictionary.

3. *My* neighbor makes and sells *children's* shoes.

Why do we call “*my*” an *Adjective*?

Because it describes “*Father*”—by telling *whose* father.

How does “*Webster's*” describe “*Dictionary*?”

How does “*children's*” describe “*shoes*?”

What is a Possessive Specifying Adjective?

Definition 96. An Adjective that specifies by indicating a relation of *ownership*, *origin*, or *fitness*, is called a *Possessive Specifying Adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Ownership* I write this with *William's* pen.

2. *Origin* We have purchased a *Webster's* Dictionary.

3. *Fitness* Mr. Cook has some elegant *boys'* caps.

Why do we call such words Possessive Adjectives?

Because they have the *Possessive Form*, and generally describe by denoting possession.

Do they always denote possession or ownership?

Possessive Adjectives do not always denote possession or ownership.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain one or more *Possessive Adjectives*.

Verbal Adjectives.

1. *Running* streams afford pure water.
2. The boy *running* across the fields is a truant.

Why do we call "running" an Adjective?

How does it describe "streams?"

How does "running" describe "boy?"

Remember—All Adjectives derived from Verbs, are called *Verbal Adjectives*.

What is a Verbal Adjective?

Definition 97. A Participle used to express a *condition, state, or act* of a being or of a thing, is called a *Verbal Adjective*.

EXAMPLES.

3. *Echoing* Lightly tread the *echoing* floor.
4. *Slamming* Lightly shut the *slamming* door.
5. *Throbbing* The *throbbing* heart lies still.
6. By the *babbling* brook he dines, from the *glowing* noontide heat,
7. *Sheltered* by the *branching* pines *hanging* o'er the grassy seat.

Let each pupil make and place in Diagram a Sentence that shall contain one or more Verbal Adjectives.

The Derivation of Adjectives.

1. Some words are primarily used as Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—Good—bad—sweet—tall—warm—new.

2. But most Adjectives are derived from Nouns, from Pronouns, and from Verbs.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Nouns.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>	<i>Pronouns.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>
Man,	manly.	It,	its.	Study,	studious.
Angel,	angelic.	Him,	his.	Love,	lovely.
Defect,	defective.	Me,	mine.	See,	seeing.
Fool,	foolish.	Who,	whose.	Touch,	touching.
China,	Chinese.	They,	their.	Instruct,	instructed.
America,	American.	Us,	our.	Write,	written.

Let the pupils make Sentences containing Adjectives derived from the following

<i>Nouns.</i>		<i>Pronouns.</i>	<i>Verbs.</i>
England,	Geography,	Him,	See,
France,	Arithmetic,	Me,	Hear,
Germany,	Grammar,	It,	Feel,
Russia,	Continent,	You,	Study,
Genoa,	Mechanic,	They,	Laugh,
Rome,	Telegraph.	Who.	Depend.

Adjectives in Predicate.

Remember—Adjectives describe things in two distinct methods:

1. They are attached to Nouns and to Pronouns to denote a *quality assumed*.
2. They are used with certain Verbs to *assert a quality or condition*.

EXAMPLES.

1. The *joyous* girl grew *sad*.

What quality of "girl" is assumed?

What quality of "girl" is asserted?

Remember 1. When a *quality* is *asserted* of a being or thing, the assertion is made by a *Verb* and an *Adjective*.
And

2. When an *Adjective* is used with a *Verb* to make an assertion, it is said to be *in Predicate*.

ADVERBS.



ALLY and Richard often behave very badly in school.

How do they often behave in school?

When do they behave badly?

How badly do they often behave?

Where do they often behave badly?

For what did I use the word "badly?"

For what did I use the word "often?"

For what did I use the word "very?"

For what did I use the Phrase "in school?"

Remember—Words that tell us *when, where, how, or why* a thing is done, are called *Adverbs*.

What is an Adverb?

Definition 98 An *Adverb* is a word used to modify the signification of a Verb, of an Adjective, or of another modifier.

EXAMPLES.

Adjuncts of Verbs 1. Yonder COMES the farmer—comes *where?*

Adjuncts of Adjectives 2. Are fruit thieves *very* GOOD people?
3. Too MANY eyes are gazing.

Adjuncts of Adverbs 4. William studies *very* WELL.

"Yonder" is used to tell *where* the farmer comes. Hence, it is an *Adverb*.

"Too" is used to tell *how* "many" eyes are gazing. Hence, it is an *Adverb*.

"Very" is used to tell *how* "well" William studies. Hence, it is an *Adverb*.

Classification of Adverbs.

Some Adverbs tell *how* a thing is done.

1. John studies diligently.

How does John study?

Remember—All words used to ask or to answer the question “*How*,” are called *Adverbs of Manner*.

EXAMPLES.

2. The book is *elegantly* bound. How bound?
3. The boys have recited their lessons *well*.
4. Stars shine *brightly*. Shine how?

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing an *Adverb of Manner*.

Remember—Adverbs of Manner used to negative an assertion or an attribute, are called *Negative Adverbs*.

Let each pupil make a Sentence containing an *Adverb of Negation*.
Some Adverbs tell when a thing is done.

5. William studies *now*.

When does William study?

Remember—All words used to ask or to answer the question *When?* or *How often?* are called *Adverbs of Time*.

EXAMPLES.

6. We shall *soon* see him. When?
7. *Oft* have I met him. When?
8. *To-morrow* shalt thou be with me.
9. “Gentlemen *never* smoke.”

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverb of Time*.

Some Adverbs tell (or ask) where a thing is done.

10. “Where shall wisdom be found?”
11. “Come *hither* all ye weary souls.”

Come whither?

Remember—All words used to ask or to answer the questions *Where?* *Whence?* and *Whither?* are called *Adverbs of Place*.

EXAMPLES.

12. *Whence* come wars?
13. *Here* sleeps he now.
14. *Yonder* comes the powerful king of day.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverb of Place*.

Remember—Words used to *ask* or to *answer* the questions *How much? How far? To what extent?* etc., are called *Adverbs of Degree*.

EXAMPLES.

15. You have recited *very* well.
16. We were *perfectly* satisfied.
17. *Too* low they build, who build beneath the stars.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverb of Degree*.

Remember—Words used to *ask* or to *answer* the questions *Why? Wherefore?* etc., are called *Adverbs of Cause*.

EXAMPLES.

18. *Wherefore* didst thou doubt?
19. *Therefore* came I unto thee.

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverb of Cause*.

How many classes of Adverbs have we?

Adverbs may modify in regard to *Manner, Time, Place, Degree, and Cause*.

Remember—Adverbs in all these classes may be used to ask questions. When so used they are called *Interrogative Adverbs*.

Modification of Adverbs.

Remember—Adverbs are modified like Adjectives, by *Comparison*.

EXAMPLES.

1. William rises *early*, and will come *soon*.
2. Mary rises *earlier*, and will come *sooner*.
3. Warner rises *earliest*, and will be here *soonest*.

Adverbial Phrases.

1. Clara will come *soon*.
Will come—when?
2. Clara will come *in a short time*.
Will come—when?

Remember 1. Phrases often perform the same office as Words.

2. When a Phrase performs an *Adverbial office*, it is called an *Adverbial Phrase*. [See p. 54.]

EXAMPLES.

Adverbial Word William was walking *homeward*.
Walking whither?

Adverbial Phrase William was walking *towards home*.
Walking whither?

Remember—Adverbial Phrases are *classified*—like Adverbial Words—according to their various offices.

EXAMPLES.

Of Manner 5. "On foot I take my way."
Take my way—how?

Of Time 6. At midnight . . . the Turk was dreaming.
Turk was dreaming—when?

Of Place 7. In his guarded tent, the Turk was dreaming.
Turk was dreaming—where?

Of Degree 8. Sweeter *by far*, is the heart's adoration.
Sweeter—to what extent?

Of Cause 9. I came to bury Cæsar.
Came—wherefore?

Of Negation 10. "Ye shall *in no wise* enter therein."
Shall ye enter?

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverbial Phrase*.

Adverbial Sentences.

William rises *early*.
Rises when?

William rises *before the day dawns*.
Rises when?

Remember—When a Sentence performs an Adverbial office in the structure of another Sentence, it is called an *Adverbial Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

How? Speak the piece as I pronounce it to you.

When? And, when its yellow lustre smiled,
Each mother held aloft her child.

Where? Where Wealth and Freedom reign, contentment fails.

Why? I came because you called me.

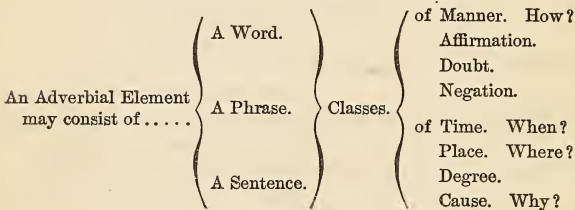
Why do we call "as I pronounced it to you," a Sentence?

Is it a Principal Sentence, or an Auxiliary Sentence?

Why do we call it an Adverbial Sentence?

Let each pupil make a Sentence that shall contain an *Adverbial Sentence*.

RECAPITULATION.



EXERCISES.

In the following Sentences, point out all the Adverbial Elements:

1. *Words.*

1. *Lightly* tread the echoing floor.
2. Our fathers, *where* are they?
3. And the prophets, do they live *forever*?
4. *How lightly* mounts the Muse's Wing!

2. *Words and Phrases.*

5. *More frequently* he calls on me.
6. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
7. The Turk was dreaming;
8. In dread, in danger, and alone,
9. Famished and chilled through ways unknown,
10. Tangled and steep he journeyed on.

3. *Words, Phrases, and Sentences.*

11. "E'en now, where Alpine solitudes ascend,
I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend;
And placed on high, above the storm's career,
Look downward, where a hundred realms appear."

Now give the class of each—*Time—Place—Degree—Cause—Manner—Negation.*

Let them be parsed by this

MODEL.

Now	{	Modifies "sit"—denoting <i>time</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Word.</i>
Where Alpine solitudes ascend ...	{	Modifies "sit"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Sentence.</i>
Down	{	Modifies "sit"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Word.</i>
A pensive hour to spend	{	Modifies "sit"—denoting <i>cause</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Phrase.</i>
On high	{	Modifies "placed"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Phrase.</i>
Above the storm's career	{	Modifies "placed"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Phrase.</i>
Downward	{	Modifies "look"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Word.</i>
Where a hundred realms appear ...	{	Modifies "look"—denoting <i>place</i> ; hence, an Adverb — <i>Sentence.</i>

Derivation of Adverbs.

1. Some words are used primarily as Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—*Now, then, here, there, soon, well.*

2. But most Adverbs are derived from Adjectives; as, *able, ably*; *noble, nobly*; *skillful, skillfully*; *true, truly*; *false, falsely*.

Let Sentences be made—each Sentence containing one of the following words:

<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>
Love,	loving,	lovingly.	Vice,	vicious,	viciously.
Skill,	skillful,	skillfully.	Fear,	fearful,	fearfully.
Use,	useful,	usefully.	Peace,	peaceable,	peaceably.
Beauty,	beautiful,	beautifully.	Joy,	joyful,	joyfully.

Now let each Sentence be analyzed and the Adverbs parsed.

PREPOSITIONS.



PHILIP and Charles have gone *to* the brook *to* angle for trout.

2. Do you see Philip standing *on* the bridge that reaches *from* rock *to* rock *across* the stream?
3. He has cast his hook *into* the water *below* the bridge.
4. Will he pull a fish *out of* the water while Charles is wading *through* the brook *above* the bridge and *near* the rock?
5. Can a dog be *of* service *in* sports *like* this?

Philip and Charles have gone where?

What, then, is the use of the Phrase "to the brook?"

What introduces or begins that Phrase?

Between what two words does "to" show a relation?

What kind of relation does "to" show?

Why do you call that a relation of place?

Remember—Words used to *introduce* Phrases—showing a *relation* of other words to each other, are called *Prepositions*.

What is a Preposition?

Definition 99. A *Preposition* is a word used to introduce a Phrase, showing a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

What words are generally used as Prepositions?

The following words are sometimes or generally used as Prepositions:

About "We walked *about* the grove."

Above "There is a ferry *above* the falls."

Across "Across the ocean came a pilgrim bark."

(c.) *After* "He that cometh *after* me, is preferred before me."

Against "He that is not for me, is *against* me."

Along "Winds that run *along* the summits of their hills."

- Amid* "We stowed them *amid-ships*."
- Amidst* "*Amidst the mists*, he thrusts his fists."
- Among* "He became a great favorite *among the boys*."
- Amongst* "We made diligent search *amongst the rubbish*."
- Around* "The chill dews of evening were falling *around me*."
- (c.) *As* "He mentioned this *as the latest news*."
- Aslant* "It struck *aslant the beam*."
- Astride* "He sat *astride the beam*."
- At* "He was *at work at noon*."
- Athwart* "The dolphin leaped *athwart her bows*."
- (c.) *Before* "He stood *before the people*."
- Behind* "She stood *behind a rick of barley*."
- Below* "The captain was *below decks*."
- Beneath* "He lies *beneath the mouldering ruins*."
- Beside* "*Beside its embers*, red and clear." (By the side of.)
- Besides* "There was a famine in the land, *besides the first famine*." (In addition to.)
- Between* "He came *between us* pretty oft."
- Betwixt* "There is no difference *betwixt them*."
- Beyond* "He lives *beyond the lake*."
- (c.) *But* "All went *but me*."
- By* "They stood *by the cross*."
- Concerning* "*Concerning whom* I have before written."
- Down* "We floated *down the stream*."
- During* "This has occurred many times *during the year*."
- (c.) *Ere* "And *ere another evening's close*."
- Except* "I have worked all *except the last problem*."
- Excepting* "*Excepting that bad habit*, the teacher was faultless."
- (c.) *For* "Will you solve that problem *for me*?"
- From* "Playful children, just let loose *from school*."
- In* "*In dread, in danger, and alone*."

- Into* "Into these glassy eyes put light."
- (a.) *Like* "Like a spirit, it came."
- (ad.) *Near* "His residence is near the church."
- Next* "Plural nominatives should be placed next their verbs."
- Nigh* "Come not nigh me."
- Notwithstanding* .. "Notwithstanding this, we remain friends."
- Of* "The time of my departure approaches."
- (ad.) *Off* "He fell off the bows."
- On* "He stood on an eminence."
- (a.) *Opposite* "Our friend lives opposite the Exchange."
- Over* "I threw the ball over the house."
- (a.) *Past* "We came past Avon."
- (a.) *Respecting* "Nothing was known respecting him."
- Round* "He went round the parish, making complaints."
- (c.) *Since* "Since Saturday he has not been seen."
- Save* "All, save this little nook of land."
- (c.) *Than* "Than whom none higher sat."
- Through* "Through bush and brake resounds the bugle horn."
- Throughout* "Throughout that dismal night."
- Till* "He labored hard till noon."
- To* "We purpose to go to Rochester to-day."
- (a.) *Touching* "Touching these things, whereof I am accused."
- Towards* "They returned towards evening."
- Under* "Then they went under the cloud."
- Underneath* "And underneath his feet, he cast the darkness."
- Unlike* "Unlike all that I had ever before seen."
- (c.) *Until* "We shall not return until Saturday."
- Unto* "He came unto His own."
- Up* "The squirrel ran up a tree."
- Upon* "He stood upon the highest peak."
- With* "I will go with you."
- Within* "Peace be within these walls."
- Without* "I cannot go without you."

Words marked (a.) are also used as Adjectives.

Words marked (c.) are also used as Conjunctions.

Words marked (ad.) are also used as Adverbs.

Sometimes two words combine to perform the office of a Preposition. *As to—from out—instead of—out of—off of—*are of this class of compound or *double Prepositions*.

Remember—The Word which a Prepositional Phrase qualifies is called the *Antecedent term of Relation*.

Point out the Antecedent of each Preposition in the above LIST.

Remember—The Antecedent may be a *Noun*, a *Pronoun*, an *Adjective*, a *Verb*, a *Participle*, or an *Adverb*.

E X A M P L E S .

A Noun 1. The STORMS of wintry time will quickly pass.

A Pronoun . . . 2. WHO of us shall go ?

An Adjective . . 3. The boy was RUDE in speech.

A Verb 4. " He STOOD on an eminence."

A Participle . . 5. " If a body meet a body, COMING through the rye."

An Adverb . . . 6. The hat is TOO small for Willie, and TOO large for me.

Remember—The Object of a Preposition is called its *Consequent term of Relation*.

Remember—The Object of a Preposition may be a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence*.

1. *A Word*—The wood nymphs started at the sight.

2. *A Phrase*—A habit of moving quickly is another way of gaining time.

3. *A Sentence*—

The footman in his usual phrase

Comes up with " *Madam, dinner stays.*"

Point out the *Consequent* or *Object* of each Preposition in the above LIST of Prepositions.

Remember—The Object of a Preposition is a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*, in the *Objective Case* ; or it is a *Substantive Phrase*, or a *Substantive Sentence*.

EXCEPTION.—The Preposition “to” often has a *Verb* in the *Infinitive Mode* as its Object.

EXAMPLES.

7. William is requested to *study*.

8. “I love to hear thine earnest voice.”

Remember—A Phrase having a Verb as the Object of the Preposition “to,” is called an *Infinitive Phrase*. [See p. 58.]

EXERCISES.

“The storms of wintry time will quickly pass.”

“Of” is used to introduce the Phrase “of wintry time,” showing a relation of “time” to “storms.” Hence it is a *Preposition*.

“The boy was rude in speech.”

“In” is used to introduce the Phrase “in speech,” showing a relation of “speech” to “rude.” Hence it is a *Preposition*.

A habit of moving quickly is another way of gaining time.”

“Of” is used to introduce the Phrase “of moving quickly,” showing a relation of “moving quickly” to “habit.” Hence it is a *Preposition*.

(By another Model—suited to more advanced pupils.)

“Of” is a Preposition, because it connects “moving quickly” to “habit,” showing a relation between them.

CONJUNCTIONS.

John studies.	}	John and James study and recite.
James studies.		
John recites.	}	Who <i>study</i> ? Who <i>recite</i> ?
James recites.		

Remember—Two or more words may be *joined in construction*, when they perform similar offices in Sentences or in Phrases.

The Words which denote this conjoining of other words without indicating a relation, are called *Conjunctions*.

What is a Conjunction?

Definition 100. A *Conjunction* is a word used to join Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

- To join Words* 1. WILLIAM *and* JOSEPH work.
 2. William WORKS *and* PLAYS.
 3. In PEACE *and* SAFETY may we dwell.
- To join Phrases* 4. Education is important TO THE RICH *and* TO THE POOR.
 5. "TO DO GOOD *and* TO BE BENEVOLENT are often very different things."
- To introduce Sentences* . . . 6. "When its yellow lustre smiled
 Each mother held aloft her child."

LIST.

The words most frequently used as Conjunctions are—

- And* "And the sword and the plague-spot with death strew the plain."
- Again* "Again, look at the moral aspects of this enterprise."
- Besides* "Besides, sir, when shall we be stronger?"
- Both* "Both Anna and William were absent."
- But* "I go, but I return."
- Either* "Either you or I mistake."
- Else* "Else what shall they do?"
- Further* "Further, by this, my son, be admonished."
- Moreover* "Moreover, the dogs came and licked his sores."
- Neither* "Neither poverty nor riches can render a man happy."
- Nor* "Nor war nor wisdom yields our Jews delight."
- Or* "Disease or poverty attend the sluggard."
- Otherwise* "Otherwise ye have no reward of your Father."
- Still* "Still, the impression has troubled me."
- Thus* "Thus with the year, seasons return."
- Yet* "Yet I do feel my soul recoil within me."
- Wherefore* "Wherefore tongues are for a sign."

The Conjunctions in the preceding LIST either connect words or introduce Principal Sentences.

The following Conjunctions are commonly used to introduce Auxiliary (Adverbial) Sentences:

- After* "We reached the station after the cars had gone."
Although "We did not attend the concert, although we had tickets."
As "As ye journey sweetly sing."
Because "He studies only because he must."
Before "I shall graduate before you enter college."
Except "Except the corn die it abideth alone."
For "He will never be respected, for he will not respect himself."
If "If sinners entice thee consent thou not."
Lest "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty."
Provided "I will go provided you accompany me."
Since "Since moral suasion will not move you, I will try physical."
Than "He is more willing to give than we are to receive."
That "He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son."
Then "If you will take the right, then I will go to the left."
Though "Though all men forsake thee I will not."
Unless "Acquired knowledge avails little unless it rests on common sense."
When "When I am thy captive, talk of chains."
Where * "Where wealth and freedom reign contentment fails."
While "O will you be a Christian while you're young!"

Remember—Sometimes two or more words combine to constitute a Conjunction.

EXAMPLES.—*As well as, howbeit, howsoever, notwithstanding,* and some others.

Remember—Conjunctions used to introduce Adverbial Sentences are called *Adverbial Conjunctions*.

EXAMPLE.—I will go *when* you go—perhaps *before* you go.

* Some of the words in this list are often used as Adverbs. In parsing such words, the inquiry should be, *Does the word modify a Verb, or is it here used chiefly to introduce a Sentence?* If the former, it is an Adverb; if the latter, it is a Conjunction.

Remember—Auxiliary *Adjective* Sentences are introduced by *Relative Pronouns* or by *Possessive Adjectives* derived from them. [See p. 85.]

EXERCISES.

1. "Anna and Willie carry the basket."

"*And*" is used to *connect* the words Anna and Willie as Subjects of the Verb "carry." Hence it is a *Conjunction*.

2. "And I am glad that he has lived thus long."

"*And*" is used to *introduce* the Sentence. Hence it is a *Conjunction*.

"*That*" is used to *introduce* the Auxiliary Sentence. It is therefore a *Conjunction*.

"And when we are parted and when thou art dead,
O where shall we lay thee!"

"*And*" is used to *introduce* the Principal Sentence "we shall lay thee." Hence it is a *Conjunction*.

"*When*" is used to *introduce* the Adverbial Sentence "when we are parted." Hence it is an *Adverbial Conjunction*.

"*And*" is used to *connect* the two Adverbial Sentences "when we are parted" and "when thou art dead." Hence it is a *Conjunction*.

"*When*" is used to *introduce* the Adverbial Sentence "when thou art dead." Hence it is an *Adverbial Conjunction*.

Thus parse the Conjunctions in the above *list*.

EXCLAMATIONS.

What is an Exclamation?

Definition 101. A word used to express a sudden or an intense emotion, is called an *Exclamation*.

EXAMPLES.

Alas! Alas! alas! that great city.

O O Scotia!

Wo! Wo! wo! to the riders.

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

Remember—Some words are used that have no *grammatical office* :—being used chiefly for *Rhetorical effect*. Such words are called *Words of Euphony*.

What is a Word of Euphony?

Definition 102. A *Word of Euphony* is a Word used chiefly for the sake of *sound*, or to change the *position, accent, or emphasis* of other Words in a Sentence.

OBSERVATION 1.—Words of Euphony are such as commonly belong to some other “part of speech.” But they are properly called Words of Euphony when they do not perform their usual grammatical offices. They are, then, in their offices chiefly *Rhetorical*—being used,

(1.) To render other Words emphatic.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Even* in their ashes live their wonted fires.”

2. “The moon *herself* is lost in heaven.”

(2.) To change the position of the parts of a Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—3. “*There* are no idlers here.”

(3.) To preserve the rhythm in a line of poetry.

EXAMPLES.—4. “I sit *me* down a pensive hour to spend.”

5. “His teeth *they* chatter, chatter still.”

Remember—We cannot always tell by the looks of a Word what its office is. For some words differing from each other in their uses are spelled alike.

It should always be remembered by the pupil that the OFFICE of a word—not its shape—determines its Etymology.

Among the Words of similar Orthography that differ in their Etymology are the following :

A Adj . . . Webster wrote *a* Dictionary.

A Prep . . . Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel *a* wreck.

Above . . . Prep . . . He stands *above* us.

Above . . . Adv . . . By the terms *above* specified.

After . . . Prep . . . He that cometh *after* me is preferred before me.

After . . . Conj . . . He came *after* you left.

- After Adj He was in the *after* part of the ship.
- As Conj Just *as* the twig is bent the tree's inclined.
- As Adv Nature, *as* far as art can do it, should be imitated.
- As Pron Such *as* I have, give I unto thee.
- Before . . . Prep He stood *before* the people.
- Before . . . Conj They kneeled *before* they fought.
- Both Adj Situated on *both* sides of the river.
- Both Pron Lepidus flatters *both*—of *both* is flattered.
- Both Conj And now he is *both* loved and respected.
- But Prep All *but* me were rewarded.
- But Conj I go—*but* I return.
- But Adv If we go, we can *but* die.
- Ere Prep And *ere* another evening's close.
- Ere Conj And *ere* we could arrive [at] the point proposed.
- For Prep They traveled *for* pleasure.
- For Conj He cannot be a scholar, *for* he will not study.
- Like Prep Nature all blooming *like* thee.
- Like Adj *Like* causes produce *like* effects.
- Like Verb We *like* whatever gives us pleasure.
- Like Pron We shall never see the *like* again.
- Near Adj At the *near* approach of the star of day.
- Near Prep We live *near* the springs.
- Near Adv Books were never *near* so numerous.
- Near Verb We shall *near* the light-house.
- Neither . . . Adj He can debate on *neither* side of the question.
- Neither . . . Pron We saw *neither* of them.
- Neither . . . Conj The boy could *neither* read nor write.
- Next Adj The *next* generation.
- Next Prep Adjectives should be placed *next* their substantives.
- Off Adj The *off* ox should keep the furrow.
- Off Prep William fell *off* the load.
- Only Adj Love and love *only* is the loan for love.
- Only Adv *Only* observe what a swarm is running after her.
- Opposite . . Adj On the *opposite* bank of the river.
- Opposite . . Prep We stood *opposite* the Exchange.
- Past Adj A *past* transaction.
- Past Prep It was *past* midday.

Round	Adj	Like the <i>round</i> ocean.
Round	Prep	Flung <i>round</i> the bier.
Round	Noun	The watchman takes his nightly <i>round</i> .
Still	Adj	<i>Still</i> waters reflect a milder light.
Still	Adv	<i>Still</i> struggling, he tries to stand.
Still	Conj	<i>Still</i> , the reflection has troubled me.
Still	Noun	The loafer lounges about the <i>still</i> .
Still	Verb	"He could <i>still</i> the tempest at His will."
Since	Prep	<i>Since</i> yesterday, we have taken nothing.
Since	Conj	<i>Since</i> I cannot go, I will be contented here.
So	Adv	<i>So</i> calm, <i>so</i> bright.
So	Conj	"I'll say thee nay, <i>so</i> thou wilt woo."
Than	Conj	She is more nice <i>than</i> wise.
Than	Prep	<i>Than</i> whom, Satan except, none higher sat.
Than	Pron	We have more <i>than</i> heart can wish.
That	Adj	<i>That</i> book is mine.
That	Rel. Pron . . .	"Him <i>that</i> cometh unto me, I will in no wise cast out."
That	Pron. Adj . . .	Forgive me my foul murder? <i>that</i> cannot be.
That	Conj	I am glad <i>that</i> he has lived thus long.
Then	Adv	<i>Then</i> , when I am thy captive, talk of chains.
Then	Conj	<i>Then</i> , I'll look up.
Then	Pron	Till <i>then</i> .
Till	Prep	They labored hard <i>till</i> night.
Till	Conj	<i>Till</i> I come, give attention to reading.
Till	Noun	He kept his money in the <i>till</i> .
What	Adj	At <i>what</i> hour did you arrive?
What	Rel. Pron . . .	<i>What</i> Reason weaves, by Passion is undone.
What	Inter. Pron . .	<i>What</i> does it avail?
What	Exclam	<i>What</i> ! is thy servant a dog?
While	Conj	Good boys study <i>while</i> the teacher is absent.
While	Verb	We <i>whiled</i> away the time in fishing.
While	Noun	After a <i>while</i> we returned to the boat.

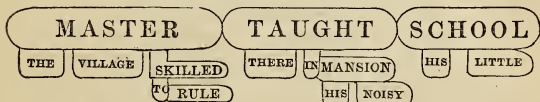
REMARK.—The above list is sufficiently extended to show the pupil that a word cannot be properly *parsed* until the Sentence in which it is found is first *analyzed*.

On the four following pages we give a MODEL—perhaps the best—for analysis and parsing.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSES AND PARSING.



"There, in his noisy mansion, skilled to rule,
The village master taught his little school."



A Sentence

Simple

Transitive

Why? Def.,* p. 16.

Why? Def., p. 42.

Why? Def., p. 42.

Analysis by the Diagram.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The Subject	"Master."
		The Predicate	"Taught."
		The Object	"School."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	Of the Subject . . .	"The," a Word.
			"Village," a Word.
			"Skilled to rule," a Phrase.
	{	Of the Predicate . .	"There," a Word.
			"In his noisy mansion," . . a Phrase.
			"His," a Word.
{	Of the Object	"Little," a Word.	

* Let the pupil repeat the *Definitions* until they become perfectly familiar. After that the *Definitions* may be omitted.

Parsed by the Chart.

There an Element in the Sentence.

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why? Def., p. 13.
Adverb— <i>of Place</i>	—Why? Def., p. 134.

In his noisy mansion an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Phrase	—Why? Def., p. 47.
Adverb— <i>of Place</i>	—Why? Def., p. 134.

Skilled to rule an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Phrase	—Why? Def., p. 47.
Adjective	—Why? Def., p. 125.

The an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why? Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why? Def., p. 125.

Village an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why? Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why? Def., p. 125.

Master an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Principal Part	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Subject	—Why? Def., p. 18.
Word	—Why? Def., p. 13.
Noun	—Why? Def., p. 64.

Subjective Case.

Taught an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Principal Part	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Predicate	—Why? Def., p. 20.
Verb	—Why? Def., p. 89.

Active—Indicative—Past.

His an Element in the Sentence—Why?

Adjunct	—Why? Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why? Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why? Def., p. 125.
Possessive	—Why? Def., p. 131.

Little an Element in the Sentence—Why ?

Adjunct	—Why ?	Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why ?	Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why ?	Def., p. 125.
Qualifying	—Why ?	Def., p. 126.

School an Element in the Sentence—Why ?

Principal Part	—Why ?	Def., p. 24.
Object	—Why ?	Def., p. 23.
Word	—Why ?	Def., p. 13.
Noun	—Why ?	Def., p. 64.
Common	—Why ?	Def., p. 65.
Third	—Why ?	Def., p. 71.
Singular	—Why ?	Def., p. 74.
Objective	—Why ?	Def., p. 75.

Analysis of the Phrases.

“In his noisy mansion.”

A Prepositional Phrase—Why ? Def., p. 57.

In an Element in the Phrase—Why ?

Leader	—Why ?	Def., p. 48.
Preposition	—Why ?	Def., p. 140.

His an Element in the Phrase—Why ?

Adjunct	—Why ?	Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why ?	Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why ?	Def., p. 125.
Possessive	—Why ?	Def., p. 131.

Noisy an Element in the Phrase—Why ?

Adjunct	—Why ?	Def., p. 24.
Word	—Why ?	Def., p. 13.
Adjective	—Why ?	Def., p. 125.
Qualifying	—Why ?	Def., p. 126.

Mansion an Element in the Phrase—Why ?

Subsequent	—Why ?	Def., p. 48.
Word	—Why ?	Def., p. 13.
Noun	—Why ?	Def., p. 64.
Object	—Why ?	Def., p. 23.

“Skilled to rule.”

A Participial Phrase—Why? Def., p. 58.

Skilled an Element in the Phrase—Why?

Leader —Why? Def., p. 48.

Participle —Why? Def., p. 59.

Intransitive —Why? Def., p. 61.

To rule an Element in the (Participial) Phrase—Why?

Adjunct —Why? Def., p. 49.

Phrase —Why? Def., p. 47.

Adverb —Why? Def., p. 54.

“To rule.”

An Infinitive Phrase—Why? Def., p. 58.

To an Element in the Phrase—Why?

Leader —Why? Def., p. 48.

Preposition “To”—Why? Def., p. 58.

Rule an Element in the Phrase—Why?

Subsequent —Why? Def., p. 48.

Infinitive Verb —Why? Def., p. 58.

Intransitive —Why? Def., p. 61.

Thus analyze the following

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES.

1. “The *dishes* of luxury cover his table.”
2. “The voice of harmony lulls him in his bowers.”
3. “Has thy constant heart refused
The silken fetters of delicious ease?”
4. “After contemplating these things, I turned my eyes towards the
top of the mountain.”
5. “Science may raise thee to eminence;
6. But I, alone, can guide thee to felicity.”
7. “But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time, did ne’er unroll.”
8. “Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear.”
9. “Along the cool sequestered vale of life
They kept the noiseless tenor of their way,”

PART III.

SYNTAX.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

1. In PART I. we took *Sentences* as we found them in books. We defined a Sentence as a Structure, made of Words and Phrases. We analyzed those Sentences—examined the several distinct parts of which they are composed—resolving them into their ultimate elements—*Words*.

2. In PART II. we examined *Words*—their *definitions*, their *forms*, and their *uses*. We found that the *more than ninety thousand English words* may be resolved into *nine distinct classes*, based on their uses in the structure of Sentences:

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Naming Words, | called <i>Nouns</i> . |
| 2. Substitutes for Names, | " <i>Pronouns</i> . |
| 3. Declaring or Asserting Words, | " <i>Verbs</i> . |
| 4. Qualifying Words, | " <i>Adjectives</i> . |
| 5. Modifying Words, | " <i>Adverbs</i> . |
| 6. Connecting Words, <i>of different construction</i> , | " <i>Prepositions</i> . |
| 7. Connecting Words, <i>of similar construction</i> , | " <i>Conjunctions</i> . |
| 8. Emotional Words, | " <i>Exclamations</i> . |
| 9. Words for Emphasis or Elegance, | called <i>Words of Euphony</i> . |

We must now learn how to use these different classes of words in asserting Propositions—in making Sentences.*

What is Syntax?

Definition 103. *Syntax* is that part of Grammar which teaches the art of making Sentences.

* It is well to teach the pupil the nice distinction that exists between the terms *Proposition* and *Sentence*. [See p. 164.]

The *Proposition* is in the *thought*; and it may be manifested in actions, in statuary, in pictures—in any form of language, natural or artificial.

The *Sentence* is in *words*—spoken or written—so *selected, modified, and arranged* as to assert its own Proposition.

The Proposition is in the province of *Logic*; the Sentence, in that of *Grammar*.

GENERAL RULES.

In making Sentences we should so select and arrange the Elements as to express the thoughts and emotions we intend to convey—*clearly—elegantly—in accordance with the custom of the best writers and speakers* of the Language.

To do this we must learn—

1. To *select the right words.*
2. To *give the right modifications.*
3. To *give them their proper positions.*

THE SENTENCE.

What is a Sentence?

What are the various sorts of Sentences? [See p. 42.]

Remember—The basis of every Sentence is the *Subject* of discussion. Every Sentence must have a Subject expressed or understood.

Pupils

Remember—The Subject alone does not constitute a Sentence. The Sentence-making element is that part which makes the assertion—that *predicates* some act or event of the Subject.

Subject.

Predicate.

Pupils

use

A Sentence may be complete in its Structure with only these two Elements—the *Subject* and the *Predicate*. But most Sentences have other Elements—*Objects* and *Adjuncts*.

Subject.

Predicate.

Object.

Pupils

use

language

pupils

use

language

Those

always

good

Here we have the three Principal Elements—each Element having an Adjunct.

We may have two or more of each Element in the same Sentence, *i. e.*, two or more Subjects, Predicates, and Objects, and two or more Adjuncts of each.

SYNTAX OF THE SUBJECT.

1. *The right Words.*

The Subject of a Sentence must be a *Noun*, a *Pronoun*, or a *Substantive Phrase* or *Sentence*. [See p. 19.]

(a.) The *Noun Subject*.—Any Noun may be used as the Subject of a Sentence.

(b.) The *Pronoun Subject*.—All the Pronouns except *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them* and *whom*, may be used as the Subjects of a Sentence. [See p. 20.]

Phrase Subject.—Infinitive and Participial Phrases may be used as Subjects of Sentences. [See p. 52.]

Sentence Subject.—Any Sentence used substantively may be the Subject of a Principal Sentence. [See p. 43.]

2. *The right Modifications.*

Remember.—The modification of Nouns and Pronouns peculiar to the Subject of a Sentence is that of *Case*.

RULE 1.—The Subject of a Sentence is in the *Subjective Case*.

OBSERVATION.—This Rule of Syntax requires the right *forms* of some of the Pronouns and the proper *positions* of Nouns and of Pronouns used as Subjects of Sentences.

3. *The right Position of the Subject.*

1. "The coon killed the dog."

Which word is the Subject of this Sentence?

Why do you say "coon" is the Subject?

2. The dog killed the coon.

Now, what is the Subject of this Sentence?

Why do you say "dog" is the Subject?

What makes the difference in these two Sentences?

Then

Remember 1. The proper position for the Subject is before the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The master taught school."

2. "The boy stood on deck."

3. Ye may go into all the world.

4. Who has the lesson?

Remember 2. In Imperative Sentences and in Sentences made Interrogative without the use of Interrogative Pronouns, the Subject is placed after the first word of the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Go ye* into all the world.

2. Has the master taught school?

3. Did the boy stand on deck?

4. Has Charles his lesson?

CAUTION 1.—Do not omit the Subject when the omission will render the sense obscure.

Wrong.—1. Received your letter this evening. 2. Sorry you have been sick. Will come and see you soon.

Corrected.—I received your letter this evening. I am sorry you have been sick.

CAUTION 2.—Avoid the awkward and improper use of words as Subjects, which properly belong in Phrase Adjuncts of the true Subjects. Thus,

Incorrect.—"This sort of Adverbs commonly admit of comparison."—*Buchanan's Grammar.*

Corrected.—Adverbs of this sort commonly admit of comparison.

"Every kind of comfort and convenience were provided."—*Com. Sch. Jour.*

Better.—Comfort and convenience of every kind were provided.

"This species of words were numerous."

Better.—Words of this species were numerous.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE 2.—A Pronoun should agree with its Antecedent in *Gender*, *Person*, and *Number*.

OBSERVATION 1.—Possessive Adjectives derived from Pronouns follow the same laws of agreement with their Antecedents, as those applicable to Substantive Pronouns.

1. *Gender.*

NOTE I.—The *Gender* of a Pronoun should correspond to that of its Antecedent.

1. *Alfred* was in Chicago when *he* last wrote.

2. Anna learned to play before *she* was seven.

3. The rabbit was fed by the girl who owns *it*.

2. *Person.*

The Person of a Personal Pronoun is determined by its *form*. The Person of other Pronouns is determined by their Antecedents.

3. *Number.*

NOTE II.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents one Singular Antecedent.

EXAMPLE.—*Henry* was quite well when I last saw *HIM*.

NOTE III.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents two or more Singular Antecedents taken separately.

EXAMPLE.—“The *oil* of peppermint, or any other volatile *oil*, dropped on paper, will soon evaporate; no trace of *IT* will be left.”

NOTE IV.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents a Collective Noun indicating Unity.

EXAMPLE.—I found the school more orderly than *it* had been under my administration.

Let the pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. Let any pupil put this in Diagram if they can.
2. If Clara or Anna will do it, they shall be complimented.
3. Each pupil may select a Sentence for themselves.
4. “Every true believer has the spirit of God in them.”

NOTE V.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has one Antecedent indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—Few *men* are as wise as *THEY* might be.

NOTE VI.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has two or more Antecedents taken collectively.

EXAMPLE.—Mary and Anna always accomplish what *THEY* undertake.

NOTE VII.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when its Antecedent is a Collective Noun indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—The committee were unanimous in every measure which they discussed.

OBSERVATION 2.—Singular Nouns of different Genders connected by *or* or *nor* must have different words to represent the Genders of the Antecedents.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Please ask *Albert* or *Mary* for *his* or *her* pencil.”
 2. Anna or Ernest has lost *his* or *her* book.

OBSERVATION 3.—Custom renders it proper to *presume* that Nouns which include males and females are Masculine—unless otherwise determined by the context.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The oldest *inhabitant* in the town related the story of *his* pioneer life.”
 2. “Children should revere an aged person, whether *he* be learned or unlearned.”

OBSERVATION 4.—A Pronoun representing a Collective Noun, a Phrase, or a Sentence, should be of the Neuter Gender.

Let the pupil correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "The star of the west sends *her* last lingering ray."
 2. "Look not on the wine, when *he* giveth *his* color in the cup."
 3. "No boy or girl may leave *her* seat without permission."
 4. "No *boy* or *girl* here can solve that problem unless *he* has assistance."
- Corrected.—1. The star of the west sends *its* last lingering ray.

Let the pupils correct the others.

CAUTION 3.—Do not use the Pronouns *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them* and *whom*, as Subjects of Sentences.

- Wrong.—1. John and *me* have completed Algebra.
 2. Has *thee* been to the yearly meeting?
 3. You said *him* and I might go.
 4. Jane and *her* were at the concert.
 5. *Us* girls had a little dance in the parlor.
 6. *Them* are the boys we met.
 7. I do not know *whom* else were there.

- Corrected.—1. John and *I* have completed Algebra.
 2. Hast thou been to the yearly meeting?
 3. You said *he* and I might go.
 4. Jane and *she* were at the concert.
 5. *We* girls had a little dance in the parlor.
 6. *Those* are the boys we met.
 7. I do not know *who* else were there.

CAUTION 4.—Do not use a Pronoun with its Antecedent in the same construction.

- Wrong.—1. "Our teacher *she* will go with us."
 Corrected.—Our teacher will go with us.
 Wrong.—2. "Graham *he* is the boy that takes all the prizes."
 3. "My banks *they* are furnished with bees."
 4. And the boys *they* went a fishing.

Let the pupils correct these.

OBSERVATION 5.—But Compound Personal Pronouns, and sometimes Simple Pronouns, may be used with their Antecedents for *emphasis* or for *Rhythm*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The moon *herself* is lost in heaven."
 2. "His teeth *they* chatter, chatter still."

Remember—Words thus added have a *Rhetorical*, not a *Grammatical* force. [See "Words of Euphony," p. 148.]

CAUTION 5.—Do not use a Pronoun instead of its Noun if the sense is thereby obscured.

Wrong.—1. Alice visited Clara when she returned from school.

Corrected.—Alice visited Clara when Alice returned from school; or,
When Clara returned from school, Alice visited her.

Wrong.—2. The teacher corrected John when he was angry.

3. Flora attended school with Clara when she was a little girl.

4. Do not omit the Subject when *it* will render the sense obscure.

5. "A Pronoun should not be omitted when *it* will thereby render the sense obscure."

Let the pupils correct these.

CAUTION 6.—Do not use the Pronoun *who* for the name of a thing or of a brute animal.

Wrong.—1. The elephant *who* broke the bridge swam ashore.

Corrected.—The elephant that broke the bridge swam ashore.

Wrong.—2. "They are like so many *puppets who* are moved by wires."

3. "And the *ants, who* are collected by the smell, are burned."

4. "He was met by a *dolphin, who* sometimes swam before him."

Let the pupils correct these.

CAUTION 7.—Do not use the Pronoun *which* for the name of a person.

Wrong.—1. The boy *which* can analyze this sentence may rise.

Corrected.—The boy who can analyze this sentence may rise.

Wrong.—2. "All *pupils which* have recited may be dismissed."

3. "Those *pupils which* study grammar should speak correctly."

4. "The conductor introduced me to the *man of which* you spoke."

5. "I did not meet the *lady* there *which* you spoke of."

Let the pupils correct these.

CAUTION 8.—But we should use the Pronoun *which* or *that* to represent a Collective Noun.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The *multitude that* followed swelled the notes of joy."

2. "The *regiment which* Quinby commanded suffered most in this engagement."

Wrong.—"The *committee who* were appointed failed to report."

"He instructed the *crowds who* surrounded him."

"The *court, who* gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary."

"The *nations among whom* they took their rise, were not savage."

"The *convention who* were called accomplished nothing."

Let the pupils correct these.

CAUTION 9.—Do not use the Pronoun *them* as an Adjective.

Wrong.—1. Where did you obtain *them* books?

Corrected.—Where did you obtain *those* books?

Wrong.—2. *Them* are my sentiments.

3. Have all *them* questions been answered?

4. Please give me one of *them* apples.

5. *Them* boys have all failed in spelling.

Let the pupils correct these.

NOTE VIII.—The Relative *that* may be used to represent *persons* or *things*.

OBSERVATION 1.—*That* is generally used when its Antecedent is

(1.) Another Pronoun.

(2.) A Noun limited by the Adjectives *all*, *any*, *same*, *no*, *every*, or by any Adjective of the Superlative degree.

(3.) Two or more Words denoting both persons and things.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Who that* has a proper self-respect, can chew tobacco?”

2. “It was not *I that* did it.”

3. “*He that* attends to his interior self, has business.”

4. “The same boy *that* gave the problem solved it.”

5. “*All that* a man hath will he give for his life.”

ERRORS IN THE USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. “*Who* is she *who* comes clothed in robes of green?”

2. “*He* is not the person *who* he appeared to be.”

3. “Was it *thou* or the wind *who* shut the door?”

4. “The Nominative expresses the name of the *person* or *thing which* acts.”

5. “One of the *first who* introduced it was Montesquieu.”

6. “This is the *most* useful art *which* men possess.”

7. The commissioner has secured the men and the money *which* he contracted for.

8. “The *same* men *who* stole the horse obtained the reward offered for his return.”

9. “No man *whom* I conversed with knew the cause of the accident.”

CAUTION 10.—Do not use an Adverbial Word for an Adverbial Phrase whose Object is a Relative Pronoun.

Wrong.—1. “There is no rule given *how* truth may be ascertained.”

Corrected.—“There is no rule given *by which* truth may be ascertained.”

Wrong.—2. “That darkness of character *where* we can see no heart.”

3. “This is the very house *where* he died.”

4. “I have been visiting the house *where* I was reared.”

5. “I do not see the means *how* you will do it.”

Let the pupils correct these.

CAUTION 11.—Give to the Pronoun such position as will clearly and correctly indicate its Antecedent.

Wrong.—"The first love is the last to leave the memory that enters the heart."

Corrected.—The first love that enters the heart is the last to leave the memory.

Wrong.—1. "The boy should bring a certificate from his former teacher, *who* applies for admission to this school."

2. "Every man contributed to the relief of the sufferers *whom* I met."

CAUTION 12.—In the use of Pronouns of different persons in the same Sentence, place the *Second* Person *first*, the *Third* Person *second*, and the *First* Person *last*.

Improper.—1. "We hope to see *Jane* and *you* this evening."

Corrected.—We hope to see you and Jane this evening.

Improper.—2. "Will you go to the concert with *me* and *Clara*?"

3. "John and you may parse that sentence."

4. "I think that *I* and *Anna* and *Mary* are entitled to prizes."

5. *Jack* and *I* and *father* caught that squirrel.

6. I and you ought to be polite to Jack.

Let the pupils correct these.

OBSERVATION 2.—The Relative *that*, used as the Object of a Preposition, is placed *before* the Preposition. *Whom*, *which*, and *what*, are placed after their Prepositions.

EXAMPLES.—1. "I have meat to eat *that* ye know not of."

2. "Withhold not good from them *to whom* it is due."

3. "The world *in which* we live is not our home."

4. "We could not learn *for what* he came."

Wrong.—4. We could not learn what he came for.

This is an error *which* should be done away with.

Corrected.—This is an error *which* should be avoided.

SYNTAX OF THE PREDICATE.

Mother

held

What is the Predicate of a Sentence? [See p. 20.]

What sort of word must be in Predicate? [See p. 20.]

What sorts of words may be in Predicate? [See p. 21.]

The Verb in Predicate.

NOTE I.—*The right Words.* We should use that Verb in Predicate which will most clearly and elegantly express the sense intended.

Wrong.—1. I *expect* you were out last night.

2. Respectable farmers never *lay* down in the field.

3. It is permitted to *set* down occasionally.

4. While I was talking Sarah *raised* up to leave the hall.

Corrected.—1. I *suspect* you were out last night.

2. Respectable farmers never *lie* down in the field.

3. It is permitted to *sit* down occasionally.

4. While I was talking Sarah *arose* to leave the hall.

NOTE II.—*The right Modifications.* 1. *Voice.*

OBSERVATION 1.—Taste and judgment should be exercised in deciding which form—Active or Passive—should be used. But,

OBSERVATION 2.—Generally we use the *Active* form when the principal thought centres on the *Agent*.

EXAMPLES.—“*Virtue* secures happiness.” *Temperance* promotes health.

Here “*virtue*” and “*temperance*” indicate the prominent thoughts.

OBSERVATION 3.—We use the *Passive* form when the principal thought centres on the *recipient* of the action, or when we do not know or do not care to mention the agent.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Manhood* is disgraced by the consequences of neglected youth.”

2. “The *crew* were saved, but the *ship* was lost.”

Here “*manhood*,” “*crew*,” and “*ship*” are most prominent in thought. They are therefore made the Subjects of the Sentence.

NOTE III.—When the *Agent* of an act is made the Subject, the *Active Voice* should be used.

EXAMPLES.—1. Mr. *Dewey* has examined his class.

2. “The village *master* taught his little school.”

NOTE IV.—When the *recipient* of the action is made the Subject, the *Passive* form should be employed.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *class* has been examined.

2. The *school* was taught by Dewey.

OBSERVATION 4.—An Active Transitive Predicate may be changed to the Passive Intransitive form without materially altering the sense.

EXAMPLES.—*Active* ... I saw him.

I	saw	him
---	-----	-----

Passive ... He was seen
by me.

He	was	seen
	by	me

The same *Proposition*—Different *Sentences*.

Remember—Only the Transitive Verbs have a Passive Voice—the Agent becoming the Object of an Adverbial Phrase.

NOTE V.—Only the direct Object can properly become the Subject of a Passive Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. The teacher gave John a long lesson.

Wrong.—2. John was given a long lesson by the teacher.

Correct.—3. A long lesson was given to John by the teacher.

2. Use the right Mode.

NOTE VI.—That mode of a Verb should be used which will most clearly convey the sense intended.

Indicative.

OBSERVATION 1.—When we declare or predict an *actual event*, or a conditional event *assumed as true*, we properly use the Indicative Mode.

EXAMPLES.—1. God *lives*. 2. Man *is* mortal.

3. If John *has* gone, he *has* gone at your request.

Potential.

OBSERVATION 2.—We assert *desire, duty, probability, possibility*, and *volition* by words in the *Potential Mode*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Desire*.—"I *would* thou wert cold or hot."

2. *Duty*.—"We *should* have perfect lessons."

3. *Probability*.—"I *may* do what I shall be sorry for."

4. *Possibility*.—"You *can* learn this lesson easily."

5. *Volition*.—"I *will* be honest if I cannot be rich."

Subjunctive.

OBSERVATION 3.—A Verb used to denote a conditional fact or a contingency should have the *Subjunctive form*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Were* I Alexander, I would accept these terms."

2. "*So would* I *were* I Parmenio."

Remember—The Subjunctive Mode is found only in Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences.

OBSERVATION 4.—A Sentence is made conditional—

1. By the *Subjunctive form* of the Verb, without a Conditional Conjunction.

EXAMPLE.—*Were* I a teacher I would require perfect lessons.

2. By its being introduced by the Conjunctions *if, though, unless*, etc., when the Mode may be *Indicative, Potential, or Subjunctive*.

EXAMPLES.

Indicative . . 1. "If the earth *turns* over, why do we not fall off?"

Potential . . 2. If we *would* be wise, we must study.

Subjunctive . . 3. "If I *were* rich, I would build a hospital."

Imperative.

OBSERVATION 5.—We express *command, entreaty, or advice* in the use of the *Imperative Mode*.

EXAMPLES.

- Command* 1. "Make way for Liberty."
2. "*Charge, Chester, charge.*"
- Entreaty* 3. "*Give us this day our daily bread.*"
4. "Angels, and ministers of grace, *defend* us."
- Advice* 5. "*Avoid it, turn from it, and pass away.*"
6. *Let all the ends thou aimest at be thy country's,*
thy God's, and Truth's.

OBSERVATION 6.—The form of the Imperative is often elegantly used for the Future Indicative.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Let* us sing, for *We will sing.*

2. "*Let there be light,*" for Light shall be.

OBSERVATION 7.—We have certain forms of expression which are *analogous*, if not equivalent to the Imperative—having the *force* without the *form*.

EXAMPLES.

- Indicative* . . 1. "Fall he that must, beneath his rival's arms,
And live the rest, secure of future harms."—*Pope*.
Potential . . 2. "Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God
in vain."

OBSERVATION 8.—The Infinitive Mode is not used as a Predicate Verb.

TENSE.

3. *Use the right Tense.*

Remember 1. The time of an act or event is represented *generally* by the *form of the Verb*, and *definitely* by the use of *Adjuncts*. Hence,

NOTE VII.—That form of the Verb should be used which will most clearly express the time intended.

OBSERVATION 1.—A present act or a proposition which is always true, or which includes the past, the present, and the future, should be expressed in the Present Tense.

EXAMPLES.—1. "God *moves* in a mysterious way."

2. "The lecturer demonstrated that the earth *is* round."

3. "Did he say that the moon *revolves* from east to west?"

OBSERVATION 2.—An act or event in a time *absolutely past*, is best expressed in the Past form of the Verb.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Time *slept* on flowers, and *lent* his glass to Hope."
2. Grant *commanded* the army of the James.

OBSERVATION 3.—An act or event in a period of past time reaching to the Present, is best expressed in the *Prior Present form*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "I *have* never seen the righteous forsaken."
2. Grant *has* occupied the chair of state three years.

CAUTION 1.—Do not use the Prior Present form in asserting an act absolutely and definitely past.

- Incorrect.—1. I *have seen* William yesterday.
2. Phillips *has* lectured last evening on "The Lost Arts."
Corrected.—1. I *saw* William yesterday.
2. Phillips *lectured* last evening on "The Lost Arts."

OBSERVATION 4.—An act or event predicted or promised at a future time, is best expressed in the Future form of the Verb.

- EXAMPLES.—1. We *shall* not all sleep.
2. *Will* Sherman be our next President?

EXCEPTION.—In Adverbial Sentences *used to denote time*, the Present is often used for the Future and the Prior Future.

- EXAMPLES.—1. I shall go when the train *starts*—[will start.]
2. "Till I *come*, give attention to reading"—till I *shall* come.

OBSERVATION 5.—When we wish to represent an act or event as finished at a future time, we use the form of the *Prior Future Tense*.

EXAMPLE.—"You *will have learned* something of astronomy before the next transit of Venus will occur."

OBSERVATION 6.—In Complex Sentences, the Tense of the Principal Sentence does not necessarily control the Tense of the Verb in the Auxiliary Sentence.*

EXAMPLES.

Past and Present . . 1. "I *said* in my haste, all men *are* liars."

Present and Future . . 2. "Those that *seek* me early *shall find* me."

Future and Prior Present . . 3. You *will* never know how much I *have* loved you.

Present and Prior Past . . 4. I *can* not tell where I *had* seen him.

* The above are the common laws for the use of the Tenses. But poets, orators, and speakers in animated discourse, and writers in easy colloquial style, often claim license to disregard these laws.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

RULE 3.—The first Verb in Predicate should agree with its Subject in Person and Number.

OBSERVATION 1.—Only the first word in Predicate is varied in form for any purpose.

OBSERVATION 2.—A Verb varies in form only when its Subject is of the Second or of the Third Person Singular.

<i>Varied.</i>			<i>Not Varied.</i>		
<i>First Person</i>			$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{I} \\ \text{We} \\ \text{Ye} \\ \text{You} \\ \text{They} \end{array} \right\} \text{love.}$		
<i>Second Person</i>	Thou lovest.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{Ancient form.}$			
<i>Third Person</i> . . .	{ He loveth.				
	{ He loves . . .				<i>Modern form.</i>

Rule 2 applies only to the Second and the Third Persons Singular.

NOTE VIII.—When the Subject is one Word in the Singular Number, or a Phrase, or a Sentence, we give the first Verb in Predicate the Singular form.

Noun *John loves* his studies.

Phrase *Teaching school is* a pleasing occupation.

Sentence *That the world is round is* proved in many ways.

Wrong.—1. A *variety* of pleasing objects *charm* the eye.

2. The assembly *have* passed the bill.

3. One from ten *leave* nine.

4. To dispute the doctors *require* fortitude.

5. When the boys came home *are* not known.

Let the pupils correct these by Note VIII.

NOTE IX.—When the Subject is one Word of the Plural Number, we give the first Verb in Predicate the Plural form.

Noun Subject 1. "The Summer *days are* coming."

Noun Collective Subject 2. The minority *are* attempting to rule.

Pronoun Subject 3. We *have* come from the mountains.

Wrong.—1. Was there no policemen *present*?

2. The majority *is* not willing to pass the bill.

3. Some *never does* yield.

Corrected.—1. Were there no policemen *present*?

2. The majority *are* not willing to pass the bill.

3. Some *never do* yield.

NOTE X.—When the Subject consists of two or more Words, Phrases, or Sentences taken together, we give the first Verb in Predicate the Plural form.

Nouns Temperance and frugality are essential virtues.

Pronouns When you and I were boys.

Phrases Chewing tobacco and smoking cigars are bad habits.

Sentences "You shall" and "you shall not" are undignified expressions.

Wrong.—1. "The flax and the barley was smitten."

2. Two and six is eight and five is thirteen.

3. What is the latitude and longitude of Chicago?

4. The Mode and Tense is signified by the Verb.

Corrected.—1. The flax and the barley were smitten.

Let the pupils correct the others.

Collective Nouns—like other Nouns—require Singular or Plural Verbs according as they indicate unity or plurality. Those which always require a Plural Verb are the following:

Gentry—mankind—nobility—people—peasantry.

Those which may have Verbs in the Singular or Plural, according to the sense, are the following:

Aristocracy—army—auditory—committee—congress—church—family—meeting—public—school—remnant—senate.

Remember—The *Unity* or *Plurality* of a Collective Noun is generally determined by its Adjuncts, or by the nature of its Predicate Verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The *committee* was appointed by the chair."

2. "The *committee* were unanimous in sentiment."

3. "The *committee* have never been able to agree."

CAUTION 1.—Carefully distinguish between the right use of the Verbs

is and *has*,
are " *have*,
was " *had*.

Wrong.—He is gone to school. I was fallen down. They are come.

Corrected.—He has gone to school. I had fallen down. They have come.

CAUTION 2.—Never use a Verb immediately after the Auxiliary Verbs *have*, *has*, or *had*.

Wrong.—*Had* I ought to study Latin before I study English?

I would not have *went* if you had objected.

Corrected.—Ought I to study Latin before I study English?

I would not have *gone* if you had objected.

CAUTION 3.—Do not use the Verbs *get* and *got* unnecessarily.

Wrong.—Have you got my book?

Corrected.—Have you my book?

CAUTION 4.—Do not use a Participle in place of its Verb in Predicate.

Wrong.—I *seen* you when you *done* that.

Corrected.—I *saw* you when you *did* that.

CAUTION 5.—Do not use the Passive form of a Predicate to assert an act of the Subject.

Wrong.—I *am* resolved to go to college.

Corrected.—I *have* resolved to go to college.

CAUTION 6.—Do not use the Active form of a Verb to assert an act done to its Subject.

Wrong.—The grass was *cutting* in the meadow while the sheep were *shearing* in the barn.

Corrected.—The grass was *being cut* in the meadow while the sheep were *being sheared* in the barn.

CAUTION 7.—Do not insert a needless Preposition between a Transitive Verb and its proper Object.

Wrong.—1. “Transitive Verbs do not admit of Prepositions after them.”

2. “We had just entered into the tent as the lion roared.”

Corrected.—1. Transitive Verbs do not admit Prepositions after them.

2. We had just entered the tent as the lion roared.

CAUTION 8.—Do not use the Past Tense to assert a present act or event.

Wrong.—1. The preacher declared that God *was* love.

2. The teacher said that clouds *were* vapor.

Corrected.—1. The preacher declared that God *is* love.

2. The teacher said that clouds *are* vapor.

CAUTION 9.—Do not use the Indicative form of the Verb to assert a possible contingency.

Wrong.—If father *was* at home I might go.

Corrected.—If father *were* at home.

CAUTION 10.—Do not use the Subjunctive form of a Verb to assert a fact—real or assumed—as true.

Wrong.—“If he *have* washed the saints’ feet.”

Corrected.—If he *has* washed the saints’ feet.

CAUTION 11.—Do not use the same Verb as Predicate of Subjects differing in Person, if the Verb varies its form to denote the Person.

Wrong.—{ The doctor or I are wrong.

{ The doctor or I am wrong.

{ The doctor or I is wrong,

Corrected.—The doctor is wrong or I am.

CAUTION 12.—Do not change the form of a Verb to agree in Person and Number with any Adjuncts of the Subject.

Wrong.— The teacher with all her pupils were at the lecture.

Corrected.— { The teacher with all her pupils was at the lecture.
or, { The teacher and all her pupils were at the lecture.

Let the pupils correct—by the foregoing NOTES—the following

ERRORS.

1. "Where are you, my boy? Here I *are*."
2. "Such a clatter of sounds *indicate* rage."
3. "This addition of foreign words *have* been made by commerce."
4. "And many a steed in his stables *were* seen."
5. "He *dare* not call me coward."
6. "*Does* thou love to go to school?"
7. "I am mindful that myself *is* strong."
8. "I refer to this that yourself *hath* spoken."
9. "I have read what thou *says* of our peculiarities."—*The Friend*.
10. "When thou most sweetly *sings*."—*Drummond*.
11. "Thy nature, Immortality, who *knowest*?"—*Everest's Grammar*.
12. "Who *dare* avow himself equal to the task?"
13. "Every error I could find, *have* my busy muse employed."
14. "They pray together much oftener than thou *insinuates*."
15. "Simply to give alms to the poor, *do* not constitute the sum of Christian duty."
16. "How the boys all escaped from drowning *were* a wonder to us all."
17. "Variety of numbers still *belong*
To the soft melody of ode or song."
18. "Julia is always *chose* first." "Chose" is improper—why?
19. "Ainsworth has *spoke* twice and has wrote once."
20. "The best apple was *gave* to Anna."
21. "You ought not to have *broke* that chair."
22. "I *had* rather have *did* it myself."
23. "I have *ate* all I wish. "Ate" is improper—why?"
24. "Gold has *fell* ten cents in ten days."
25. "I have never *sang* in Church since."

PREDICATE NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

When are Nouns and Pronouns in Predicate? [See p. 76.]

RULE 4.—Nouns and Pronouns used in Predicate with Verbs and Participles are in the *Predicative Case*.

Form.—Pronouns in Predicate may have the form of the Subjective, the Objective, or the Possessive.

EXAMPLES.—1. It was *she*. 2. I thought it to be *him*.

3. "All mine are *thine* and thine are *mine*."

Position.—Nouns and Pronouns in Predicate are commonly placed after the Verb or Participle.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He was my friend."

2. Ye are the *things* that shine.

EXERCISES

He was my friend.

*Analyzed.**The Subject* "He," a Pronoun.*The Predicate* "Was friend," ... a Verb and a Noun.*Adjunct* "My," an Adjective.*Parsed.*

"He" is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
Subject — Word — Pronoun — Personal — Third
 Person—Singular Number—*Subjective Case*.

RULE.—"The Subject of a Sentence is in the Subjective Case."

"Was friend" ... is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
Predicate—Verb and Noun—of which—

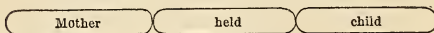
"Was" is a Verb—Copulative—Indicative Mode—Past Tense
 —agreeing with its Subject "he" in the Third
 Person—Singular Number.

RULE.—"The first Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

"Friend" is a Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—
Predicative Case.

RULE.—"Nouns and Pronouns used in Predicate with Verbs and Participles are in the Predicative Case."

SYNTAX OF THE OBJECT.



What is the Object of a Sentence? [See p. 23.]

What words may we use as Objects? [See p. 23.]

1. *The right Word.*

OBSERVATION 1.—Any Noun of any Gender, Person, or Number, may be the Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase.

2.—Any Pronoun except *I, thou, he, she, we, ye, they* and *who*, may be used as the Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase.

3.—Phrases and Sentences may be Objects of other Sentences or Phrases. [See "Exercises" below.]

2. *The right Modification.*

The only modification of Nouns and Pronouns peculiar to the Object is that of Case.

RULE 5.—The *object* of an *action* or of a *relation* is in the *Objective Case*.

OBSERVATION 1.—*Action* is expressed by *Verbs* and by *Participles*. *Relation* is expressed by *Prepositions*.

Noun—Proper Did you see *Alexis* when he came to *America*?

Common Charles caught a *squirrel* in his *trap*.

Collective He called a *convention* of the *people*.

Abstract Can one obtain *happiness* through *wickedness*?

Verbal The congregation enjoy the *singing* better than the *preaching*.

Pronoun—Personal The teacher invited *me* to go with *her*.

Relative All *whom* he sees obey *him*.

Interrogative *Whom* seekest thou?

Adjective What benefits *some* is injurious to others.

3. *The right Position.*

1. John assisted William.

What is the Object of this Sentence?

Why do you call "William" the Object?

2. William assisted John.

What is the Object of this Sentence?

Why do you call "John" the Object?

Remember—The Object of a Sentence is usually placed after the Predicate. The Object of a Phrase is placed after the Leader.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Virtue SECURES happiness."

2. "The king of shadows LOVES a shining mark."

EXCEPTION 1.—By the poets, and for rhetorical effect, the Object is often placed before the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Him*, from my childhood, I HAVE KNOWN."

2. "New ills that latter stage AWAIT."

EXCEPTION 2.—A *Relative* or *Conjunctive* Pronoun, being the Object of a Sentence, is placed before its Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Mount the horse *which* I HAVE CHOSEN for you."

2. "We serve a Monarch *whom* we LOVE—
A God *whom* we ADORE."

CAUTION 1.—Do not use the Pronouns *I, thou, he, she, we, ye, they* and *who*, as Objects of Sentences or of Phrases.

Wrong.—1. "Will you let I and John go skating?"

Corrected.—1. Will you let *John* and *me* go skating?"

Wrong.—2. Some one saw *he* and *she* at the lecture.

3. *He* who led others astray, you should correct first.

4. "Enemies of the race! I hate *ye*."

5. *Who* did you give that orange to?

6. I did not learn *who* Balkam married.

7. Robert promised you and *I* a ride on the lake.

8. "I do not remember *who* else we met."

Let the pupils correct these.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Master taught school.

"Master" is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
Subject—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person
—Singular Number—*Subjective Case*.

RULE.—"The Subject of a Sentence is in the Subjective Case."

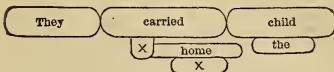
"Taught" is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
Predicate—Verb—Irregular—Indicative Mode
—Past Tense—agreeing with its Subject "Master"
in the Third Person—Singular Number.

RULE.—"The first Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

"School" is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
Object—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person
—Singular Number—*Objective Case*.

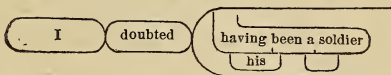
RULE.—"The Object of an action or of a relation is in the Objective Case."

2. They carried the child home.

*Parsed.*

"Home" is an Element in the Phrase ["to his home"]—Subsequent—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—*Objective Case*.

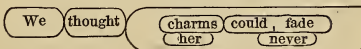
RULE.—"The Object of an action or of a relation is in the Objective Case."

3. "I doubted *his having been a soldier*."*Parsed.*

"His having been a soldier" . . is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Object—Phrase [p. 47]—Substantive [p. 52]—Participial [p. 58]—*Objective Case*.

RULE.—"The Object of an action or of a relation is in the Objective Case."

4. We thought her charms could never fade.

*Parsed.*

"Her charms could never fade" . . is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Object—Sentence—Intransitive—Simple—*Objective Case*.

RULE.—"The Object of an action or of a relation is in the Objective Case."

Other Sentences for analysis and parsing may be found on pages 22 and 28.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

What is an Adjective? [See p. 125.]

What different sorts of Adjectives? [See p. 126.]

RULE 6.—Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

1. *The right Words.*

Remember—Any Word, Phrase, or Sentence that can specify, qualify, or in any manner limit the meaning of a Noun or of a Pronoun may be used as an Adjective Element.

2. *The right Modifications.*

The principal modification of Adjectives is that of Comparison. [See p. 127.]

NOTE I.—Care should be exercised in the choice of appropriate words to indicate Comparison.

1. Things equal should be compared by *as—as*

John is *as* tall *as* James.

2. Things unequal should be compared by—

(Positive) *not so—as* John is *not so* tall *as* William.

(Comparative) *er—than* William is taller *than* John.

(Superlative) *est—of* Charles is the tallest *of* all the boys.

CAUTION 1.—Do not attempt to compare things that cannot differ in the qualities named.

Wrong.—John's hoop is *rounder* than mine.

Corrected.—John's hoop is *more nearly round* than mine.

CAUTION 2.—Things compared should be similar in their nature and construction. Do not attempt to compare one Substantive with an Adjunct of another.

Wrong.—1. The ears of a mule are longer than a horse.

2. The capital of Massachusetts is as large as Ohio.

Corrected.—1. The ears of a mule are longer than the ears of a horse—than those of a horse.

2. The capital of Massachusetts is as large as that of Ohio.

Specifying Adjectives. [See p. 129.]

NOTE II.—Specifying Adjectives should be so used as clearly to signify the real intention of the speaker or writer.

Remember—We use the Adjective *the*—sometimes called an “Article”—

1. To identify or to mark individuality.

“Thou art *the* man.”

2. To change the use of an Adjective to that of a Substantive.

“*The* poor benefit *the* rich.”

3. To show a relation of different comparisons.

“*The* more I see it *the* better I like it.”

Hence,

CAUTION 3.—Do not omit the appropriate Specifying Adjectives before Nouns that should be restricted to a particular thing or class.

Wrong.—Honest man is noblest work of God.

Corrected.—An honest man is *the* noblest work of God.

CAUTION 4.—Do not use a Specifying Adjective with Nouns taken in a general sense.

Wrong.—1. The proper study of mankind is the man.

2. The ardent spirits are injurious to the health.

Corrected.—1. The proper study of mankind is man.

2. Ardent spirits are injurious to health.

CAUTION 5.—We should repeat the Adjective *the* before other Adjectives belonging to different Nouns—specially if the Nouns are suppressed.

Correct.—1. We have sold the black, the bay, and the white horse.

Wrong.—1. We have sold the black, bay, and white horse.

2. The long and short sound of *o* is found in *dōnor*.

3. The north and south lines of this farm run exactly east and west.

4. The Past and Present Tense of “*read*” do not differ in form.

CAUTION 6.—We should not repeat a Specifying Adjective before different Qualifying Adjectives used to qualify the same person or thing.

Wrong.—The north and the south lines on the map are called meridians.

Corrected.—The north and south lines on the map are called meridians.

Numeral Adjectives. [See p. 130.]

NOTE III.—The Numeral Adjective should agree with its Noun in Number.

Correct.—1. I have not seen Ernest *this* three weeks.

Wrong.—1. I have not seen Ernest *these* three weeks.

2. This room is twenty *foot* wide.

Possessive Adjectives. [See p. 131.]*What are Possessive Adjectives?* [See p. 131.]*From what are they derived?* [See p. 132.]

NOTE IV.—Nouns and Pronouns having the Possessive form are used Adjectively.

CAUTION.—In the use of Possessive Adjectives derived from Nouns we should not omit the *sign* of the Possessive. [See p. 78.]

Wrong.—1. I heard of John going to the Falls. [Who went to the Falls—John or I?]

Corrected.—1. I heard of John's going to the Falls.

Wrong.—2. "Other duties prevent *me* staying longer now."

3. A fair wind is the cause of a *vessel* sailing.

4. There is no doubt of you being elected.

OBSERVATION.—When two or more Possessive Adjectives belong to the same Noun, the Apostrophe and s ['s] should be attached only to the last. But if they belong to different Nouns the sign of the Possessive should be attached to each.

Correct.—The three men were George's, James', and Frank's fathers.

Wrong.—Heroes and heroines' shouts confusedly rise.

Corrected.—Heroes' and heroines' shouts confusedly rise.

OBSERVATION.—Adjectives derived from Nouns may be limited by other Adjectives.

Correct.—Iron—an *iron* plow—a *cast-iron* plow.

Correct.—Boy—He saw that boy—he saw that boy's father.

Verbal Adjectives. [See p. 132.]*What are Verbal Adjectives?* [See p. 132.]*From what are they derived?**What is a Participle?* [See p. 102.]

NOTE V.—A Participle used as an Adjective belongs to a Noun or to a Pronoun which it describes; and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1.

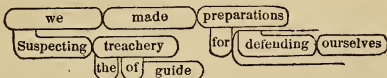
"Whose visages

Do cream and mantle like a *STANDING pond*."

2. "*Scaling yonder peak*, I saw an *EAGLE*
Wheeling near its brow."

NOTE VI.—A Participle used to introduce a *Participial Phrase* has the same construction as the Phrase which it introduces.

1. “*Suspecting the treachery of our guide, WE made PREPARATIONS for defending ourselves from any hostile attacks.*”



Here “*suspecting*” and “*defending*” are Participles, each used to introduce a Participial Phrase; but

“*Suspecting the treachery of our guide*” shows a condition of “WE.” Hence, an Adjective Phrase.

“*Suspecting*” describes “we,” by expressing, incidentally, an act of “we.” Hence, a Verbal Adjective.

“*Defending ourselves*” is a Participial Phrase—Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Substantive Phrase.

“*Defending*” is the *name* of an act, Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Verbal Noun.

2. “*Suspicious of the treachery of our guides, we made preparations for defence.*”

“*Suspicious*” describes “we,” by expressing a condition or state of “we.” Hence, an Adjective.

“*Defence*” is a *name*—Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Noun.

Adjectives in Predicate. [See p. 133.]

NOTE VII.—An Adjective, like a Participle, may be used in Predicate with a Verb, when the Verb requires its aid to make the assertion.

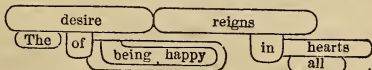
EXAMPLES.—1. “His palsied hand *waxed strong.*”

2. “Canst thou grow *sad* as earth grows *bright?*”

3. Vanity often *renders* man *contemptible.*

OBSERVATION 1.—Participles, like Verbs, sometimes require the use of Adjectives to complete the sense. Adjectives thus used are said to be “*in Predicate.*”

EXAMPLES.—1. “The desire of *being happy* reigns in all hearts.”

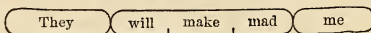


2. Her highest happiness consists in *making* others *happy.*

OBSERVATION 2.—Adjectives may be in Predicate—

1. With Transitive Verbs—Active Voice.

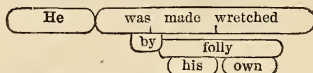
EXAMPLES.—1. “They’ll *make me mad*, they’ll *make me mad*.”



2. “The study of science tends to *make us devout*.”

2. With Passive Verbs.

EXAMPLE.—“He *was made wretched* by his own folly.”



3. With Neuter and other Intransitive Verbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. “How *dear* to my heart *are* the scenes of my childhood.”

2. “*Be* not therefore *grieved* nor *angry* with yourselves.”

CAUTION.—Do not give to an Adjective in Predicate the Adverbial form.

Incorrect.—1. William feels *badly* to-night. 2. I feel *sadly*.

3. How *beautifully* it looks! 4. It appears *strangely* to me.

Corrected.—1. William feels *bad* to-night. 2. I feel *sad*.

3. How *beautiful* it looks! 4. It appears *strange* to me.

Remember—It will be noticed that the Adjective in Predicate does not *modify* the Verb. It describes the Subject—and sometimes the Object—with the aid of the Verb.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

What is an Adverb? [See p. 134.]

RULE 7.—Adverbs belong to Verbs, to Adjectives, and to other Adverbs which they modify.

OBSERVATION 1.—An Adverb may consist of a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

Word.—1. I shall go *soon*.

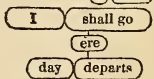
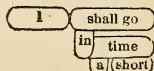
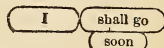
“*Soon*” modifies “shall go”—tells *when*.

Phrase.—2. I shall go *in a short time*.

“*In a short time*” modifies “shall go.”

Sentence.—3. I shall go *ere day departs*.

“*Ere day departs*” modifies “shall go.”



OBSERVATION 2.—An Adverb may modify a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

1. William STUDIES *diligently*.

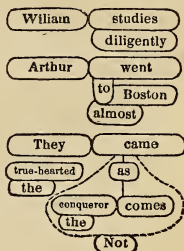
"*Diligently*" modifies a Word.

2. Arthur went *almost* TO BOSTON.

"*Almost*" modifies the Phrase to Boston.

3. "*Not* AS THE CONQUEROR COMES,
They, the true-hearted, came."

"*Not*" modifies the whole Sentence "as the conqueror comes."



NOTE I.—Use the right Word.

Words used as Adverbs are generally restricted to their peculiar office. But

Any *Word*, *Phrase*, or *Sentence* that can properly modify the meaning of a Verb, of a Participle, of an Adjective, or of an Adverb, may be used as an Adverb.

CAUTION.—Do not use an Adjective Word for an Adverbial Word.

Wrong.—1. That boy does not hear *good*.

Corrected.—1. That boy does not hear *well*.

Wrong.—2. I shall go to school whether you do or *no*.

3. I have not seen *such* a good boy in school.

But when an Adjective supplies the place of an Adverb, *by representation*, the Adjective form should be retained.

EXAMPLES.

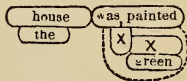
1. The house was painted green.

2. Open thy mouth *wide*.

Expanded.—1. The house was painted *with green paint*.

2. Open thy mouth *to a wide extent*.

"*Green*" and "*wide*" are Adverbs by representation.



CAUTION.—Be careful in the use of the words *not* and *no*—*never* and *ever*.

Wrong.—1. I care not whether you go or *no*.

2. It rarely or *ever* snows in Galveston.

Corrected.—1. I care not whether you go or *not*.

2. It rarely or *never* snows in Galveston.

CAUTION.—Do not use two Negatives to assert a Negative Proposition.

Wrong.—"I cannot think of no part of my lesson."

Corrected.—"I cannot think of any part of my lesson."

CAUTION.—Do not use an Adverb in Predicate with a Verb to assert a quality of its Subject.

Wrong.—"John feels *badly* while William feels *gladly*."

Corrected.—"John feels *bad* while William feels *glad*."

CAUTION.—Do not use an Adverb to express quality or condition.

Wrong.—"The roll of copy arrived *safely*."

Corrected.—"The roll of copy arrived *safe*."

NOTE II.—*Give Adverbs their proper Position.*

The Position of Adverbs should be such as most clearly to convey the sense intended.

EXAMPLE.—"Man *naturally* SEEKS his own happiness."

Generally—not always—an Adverb is properly placed *before* a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence which it modifies.

Words *Never* DO what you can *not* ADVISE others to do.

Phrase They died *not* BY HUNGER.

Sentence They came *not* AS THE CONQUEROR COMES.

OBSERVATION 2.—When the Predicate consists of more than one word, the Adverb is commonly placed after the first word in Predicate.

EXAMPLE.—"We CAN *not* HONOR our country with too deep a reverence."

CAUTION.—Avoid the very common error of misplacing the word *only*.

Wrong.—Some people *only* work *for* pleasure

(Do people never *play* for pleasure?)

Corrected.—Some people work *only* *for* pleasure.

THE INFINITIVE VERB.

What is an Infinitive Verb? [See p. 94.]

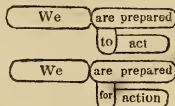
RULE 8.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition *to*, expressed or understood.

Remember—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is commonly used as a Subsequent of an Infinitive Phrase. Hence; it is an Element, not in a Sentence, but in a Phrase.

OBSERVATION 1.—In its office, the Infinitive Verb is always Substantive, generally expressing the *name* of an act, being, or state.

EXAMPLES.

We are prepared to act.



Equivalent.—We are prepared for action.

NOTE I.—The Preposition *to* is generally suppressed before Infinitive Verbs following the Verbs *bid*, *but*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and sometimes *behold*, *have*, *help*, *know*, *observe*, *perceive*, and some others.

EXAMPLES.—1. "I plunged in and **BADE** him *follow*."

2. "He **DARES** not *touch* a hair of Catiline."

3. "LET me *hear* thy voice *awake*."

4. "Clara **HELPED** me *work* that problem."

5. "I cannot **BUT** *suspect* that she assisted Cora too."

6. "I would not **HAVE** you *go* to-day."

7. "Necessity **COMMANDS** me *name* myself."

CAUTION.—Do not use the Conjunction *and* in place of the Preposition *to* before the Infinitive.

Wrong.—Will you try *and* assist me to-day?

Corrected.—Will you try *to* assist me to-day?

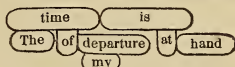
PREPOSITIONS.

RULE 9.—A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

OBSERVATION 1.—The Object of a Preposition may be—

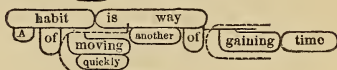
1. *A Word.*

"The time of my *departure* is **AT** hand."



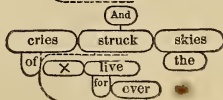
2. *A Phrase.*

"A habit **OF** *moving quickly* is another way **OF** *gaining time*."



3. *A Sentence.*

"And cries **OF** '*Live forever*' struck the skies."



Use the right Word.

OBSERVATION 2.—The particular Preposition proper to introduce a given Phrase depends—

1. Usually on the word which the Phrase is to qualify.
2. Sometimes on the Object of the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

Accommodate <i>to</i> .	Die <i>by</i> violence.	Compliance <i>with</i> .
Accord <i>with</i> .	“ <i>of</i> a disease.	Conformable <i>to</i> .
Accuse <i>of</i> .	Diminish <i>from</i> .	Difficulty <i>in, with</i> .
Acquainted <i>with</i> .	Dissent <i>from</i> .	Eager <i>in, for</i> .
Ask <i>of</i> a person.	Insist <i>upon</i> .	Need <i>of</i> .
“ <i>for</i> a thing.	Made <i>of</i> a thing.	True <i>to</i> .
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	“ <i>by</i> a person.	Value <i>upon, of</i> .
Boast <i>of</i> .	“ <i>in</i> a place.	Worthy <i>of</i> .
Concur <i>with, in</i> .	Abhorrence <i>of</i> .	
Differ <i>from</i> .	Agreeable <i>to</i> .	

Prepositions suppressed.

OBSERVATION 3.—Custom renders it proper, and elegant to omit Prepositions when the relation of Antecedent and Consequent is obvious without them. But in parsing the Phrase the Preposition should be restored.

OBSERVATION 4.—Prepositions should generally be omitted before Subsequents denoting *time, value, direction, extent*, or before Subsequents placed between Transitive Verbs and their Objects.

- EXAMPLES.—1. I visited Rochester three times last week :—*at three times, in last week.*
2. I paid him one dollar for his knife :—*with one dollar.*
3. William came home last night, having rode night and day the whole distance :—*to his home, on last night—during night and day—throughout the whole distance.*
4. “The wall is four feet high, and forty rods long :”—*high to the extent of four feet—long to the distance of forty rods.*
5. Mary gave [] me a rose :—*Mary gave a rose to me.*
6. I sold [] Mr. Shepard my wheat :—*sold wheat to Shepard.*
7. William has gone *from* home to-day—he will come [] home to-morrow—*to his home.*

CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE 10.—Conjunctions connect Elements similar in construction.

Remember 1. Adverbial Sentences are introduced by Adverbial Conjunctions. [See p. 146.]

“ *Where* Wealth and Freedom reign Contentment fails.”

“ *As* ye journey sweetly sing.”

Remember 2. Adjective Sentences are introduced by Conjunctive Pronouns [see p. 85], or by Possessive Adjectives derived from Pronouns.

“ The boy *who* called eat the grapes *which* I gave him.”

The man *whose* heart is right will be happy.

EXCEPTION.—The Conjunction *when* may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating *time*.

EXAMPLE.—Do you remember the TIME *when* Lee surrendered to Grant?

EXCEPTION.—The Conjunction *where* may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating *place*.

EXAMPLE.—Is there some favored SPOT *where* mortals weep no more?

CAUTION.—Do not use the words *where* and *when* for the Phrase *in which*.

Incorrect.—“ A limited monarchy is a government *where* the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution.”

Corrected.—A limited monarchy is a government *in which* the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution.

CAUTION.—Do not use the Adverb “*how*,” instead of the Conjunction “*that*.”

Wrong.—“ She tells me *how*, with eager speed,
He flew to hear my vocal reed.”—*Shenstone*.

OBSERVATION 2.—Many Conjunctions correspond to Adverbs, to Prepositions, and to other Conjunctions.

Either or “ *Either* you mistake, *or* I was misinformed.”

Neither nor “ *Neither* Alice *nor* Caroline has been here.”

Whether . . . or “ I care not *whether* you go *or* stay.”

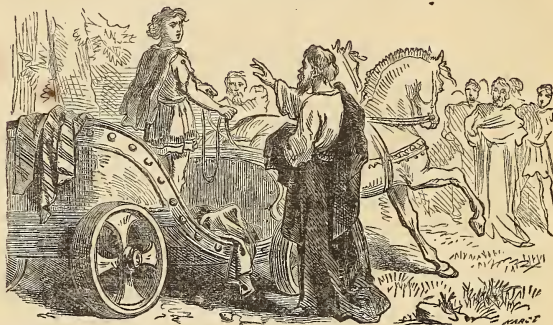
So that “ He called *so* loud *that* all the hollow deep.”

Such that “ My engagements are *such that* I cannot go.”

Not only . . . but also . . . “ She was *not only* vain, *but also* ignorant.”

Independent Words, Appellatives, Exclamations, and Words of Euphony have no dependent construction. Hence they have no Syntax.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.*



THE GRECIAN YOUTH.

- 1 A | Grecian | *youth* | of talents rare, |
 a || Whom Plato's philosophic care
 Had formed for Virtue's nobler view
 By precept and example too,||
 Would often *boast* his matchless skill,
 To curb the steed and guide the wheel.
 (2 a) And as he passed the gazing throng,
 With graceful ease, and smacked the thong,
 (2 b) The idiot *wonder* they expressed
 Was praise and *transport* to his breast.
 3 At length, quite vain, he needs would show
 a His master what his art could do ;
 4 He bade his slaves the chariot lead
 To Academus' sacred shade.
 5 The trembling grove confessed its fright ;
 6 The wood-nymphs started at the sight ;
 7 The muses drop the learned lyre,
 And to their inmost shades retire.
 8 9 Howe'er, the youth, with forward air,
 Bows to the sage, and mounts the car :

* For MODELS of Analysis and Parsing, see pp. 40, 50-1, and 151-4.

For convenience in Analysis, the Principal Sentences are indicated by figures—the Auxiliary Sentences, by letters.

- 10 The lash resounds, the coursers spring,
 11 The chariot marks the rolling ring ;
 And gathering crowds, with eager eyes,
 (12 a) And shouts, pursue him as he flies.
 Triumphant to the goal returned,
 13 With nobler thirst his bosom burned ;
 And now along the indented plain
 14 The self-same track he marks again,-
 Pursues with care the nice design,
 Nor ever deviates from the line.
 15 Amazement seized the circling crowd ;
 16 The youth with emulation glowed ;
 17 Even bearded sages hailed the boy,
 18 And all but Plato gazed with joy.
 19 For he, deep-judging sage, beheld
 With pain the triumphs of the field ;
 (20 a) And when the charioteer drew nigh,
 And flushed with hope had caught his eye,
 20 "Alas ! unhappy youth," he cried,
 "Expect no praise from me," and sighed.
 21 "With indignation I survey
 Such skill and judgment thrown away ;
 22 The time profusely squandered there
 On vulgar arts beneath thy care,
 a If well employed, at less expense,
 Had brought thee honor, virtue, sense,
 And raised thee from a coachman's fate,
 To govern men, and guide the state."

-
- a In colleges and halls in ancient days,
 When learning, virtue, piety, and truth,
 Were precious, and inculcated with care,
 1 There dwelt a sage call'd Discipline. His head,
 2 Not yet by time completely silvered o'er,
 Bespoke him past the bounds of freakish youth,
 But strong for service still and unimpair'd.
 3 His eye was meek and gentle ; and a smile
 4 Play'd on his lips ; and, in his speech, was heard
 5 Paternal sweetness, dignity and love.
 6 The occupation, dearest to his heart,
 Was to encourage goodness.

COMPOSITION.

1. Composition—as the word implies—is the art of *placing together* words so as to communicate ideas.

2. In *Prose Composition*, Words and Phrases are arranged with a primary reference to the *sense*.

3. In *Verse*, the Sound and Measure of Words and Syllables determine their position.

4. Prose Compositions may be—

Narrative, Descriptive, Didactic, Historical, Biographical.

5. Verse is used in Poetry. The different kinds of Poetry are—

<i>Lyric,</i>	<i>Dramatic,</i>	<i>Charade,</i>	<i>Ballad,</i>	<i>Sonnet,</i>	<i>Pastoral,</i>
<i>Epic,</i>	<i>Didactic,</i>	<i>Epigram,</i>	<i>Epitaph,</i>	<i>Elegiac,</i>	<i>Madrigal.</i>

PUNCTUATION.

Remember—The sense of a Sentence is often modified or changed by

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

They are—

The Comma ,	The Period
The Semicolon ;	The Interrogation . . . ?
The Colon :	The Exclamation . . . !
	The Dash —

The *Comma* should be used—

1. Between the parts of a Complex Sentence when the Adjunct Sentence precedes the Principal Sentence.

Correct.—1. “Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails.”

2. “If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink.”

Incorrect.—3. “When the cock crew he wept.”

4. “As ye journey sweetly sing.”

2. After Words, Phrases, and Sentences thrown in between the parts of a Principal Sentence.

Correct.—“Go, then, where, wrapt in fear and gloom,
Fond hearts and true are sighing.”

Wrong.—“Now therefore I pray the let thy servant abide.”

3. After words used in direct address—*Appellatives*.

Correct.—“Ye crags and peaks, I am with you once again.”

Wrong.—“Samuel raise thy buried head.”

4. After an Independent Phrase.

Correct.—"The cars having left, we chartered a coach."

Wrong.—"Captain Jones, having gone to sea his wife, desires the prayers of the congregation for his safe return."

5. After a succession of Words or Phrases of similar construction.

Correct.—Veracity, justice, temperance and charity are virtues.

Wrong.—Fame wisdom love and power were mine.

The *Semicolon* should be used—

At the close of a Sentence which, by its terms, promises an additional Sentence.

Correct.—"It thunders, but I tremble not;
My trust is firm in God."

Wrong.—Wisdom is better than rubies
It cannot be gotten for gold.

The *Colon* is used at the close of a Sentence, when another Sentence is added as a direct illustration or inference.

Correct.—"Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin: follow my laudable example: write when you can: take Time's forelock in one hand and a pen in the other, and so make sure of your opportunity."

Incorrect.—"The wicked flee, when no man pursueth but the righteous, are bold as a lion."

The *Period* is used at the close of a complete or independent proposition.

OBSERVATION.—The Period is also used after initial letters and abbreviations.

Correct.—J. Q. Adams, LL. D., M. C.

Incorrect.—A S Barnes & Co 51 John St N Y.

The *Dash* is used to indicate—

1. An abrupt transition.
2. An unfinished sentence.
3. A succession of particulars.

The mark of *Exclamation* is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence whose prominent office is to express sudden or intense emotion.

Correct.—1. "Hark! a strange sound affrights mine ear."

2. "To arms!—they come!—the Greek! the Greek!"

Incorrect.—3. "O my coëvals, remnants of yourselves."

4. "Poor human ruins tottering o'er the grave."

The mark of *Interrogation* is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence by which a question is asked.

Correct.—1. "Why is my sleep disquieted?"

2. Who is he that calls the dead?

Incorrect.—3. "Is it for thee the lark ascends and sings."

4. "What pleasing study cheats the tedious day."

Remember—When the Interrogation or Exclamation is used, the Comma, Semicolon, Colon, or Period is omitted.

GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL SIGNS.

OBSERVATION.—The signs used in writing are—

1. The Apostrophe ' .			
2. The Quotation " "			
3. The Hyphen -			
4. The Bracket []			
5. The Parenthesis ()			
6. References * †			
7. The Brace }			
	8. Inflections	{ Rising ' , Falling \ , Circumflex ^	
	9. Measures	{ Long — Short)	
	10. Caret ^		
	11. Dieresis		
	12. Index		
	13. Section §		
	14. The Paragraph ¶		

The *Apostrophe* (') is used to indicate the omission of a letter, and to change a Noun into a Possessive Specifying Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—1. 'Tis the last rose of Summer.

2. "How lightly mounts the Muse's wing."

The *Quotation* (" ") is used to inclose words taken from some other author or book.

EXAMPLE.—"Southey, among all our living poets," says Professor Wilson, "stands aloof and 'alone in his glory.'"

Remember—A Quotation quoted is indicated by single marks.

EXAMPLE.—(See the latter part of the last Example.)

The *Hyphen* (-) is used between two elements of a compound word.

EXAMPLES.—Money-market—ink-stand—black-board.

Remember—It is also used at the end of a line, when the word is not finished. (See 4th line above.)

The *Bracket* [] is used to inclose a letter or mark given as an explanatory example, or a Word, Phrase, or Sentence thrown in by a reviewer, and not a part of the original sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“ Mr. Secor found means to have Mr. Butler recommended to him [Lord Talbot] for his chaplain.”

The *Parenthesis* () is used to inclose a Phrase or Sentence explanatory of, or incidental to, the main Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“ Come, my Ambition! let us mount together,
(To mount Lorenzo never can refuse,)
And from the clouds where pride delights to dwell,
Look down on earth.”

Remember—Modern writers often use the Dash for the same purpose.

EXAMPLE.—“ The monotony of a calm—for the trade-wind had already failed us—was agreeably relieved yesterday by the neighborhood of two ships, etc.”—*Malcolm*.

References (* † ‡ §) direct attention to notes at the margin or the bottom of the page.

Remember—The letters of the Latin or Greek alphabets, and sometimes figures, are used for the same purpose.

The *Brace* ({) is used to include many species in one class.

EXAMPLE.—Adjectives are distinguished as { Qualifying,
Specifying,
Verbal.

Inflections (é à â) indicate elevations or depressions of the key-note in reading.

EXAMPLES.—“ Do you go to Albany' ? ” “ I go to Utica\.”

Measures { (-) indicates the long sound of a Syllable,
as hāte, mēte, nōte.
(ă) indicates the short sound of a Syllable,
as hăt, mět, nőt.

The *Caret* (^) is used between two words, to indicate the place of words omitted and placed above the line.

of mankind
EXAMPLES.—“The proper study ^ is man.”

Dieresis (..) is placed over the second of two vowels, to show that they belong to different syllables.

EXAMPLES.—Preëmption—Coëval—Reëducate.

OBSERVATION.—The Hyphen is sometimes placed between the vowels for a similar purpose.

EXAMPLES.—Co-operate—Re-educate.

The *Index* () is used to point out a word or sentence considered worthy of special notice.

The *Section* (§) marks the divisions of a chapter or book.

The *Paragraph* (¶) is used when a new subject of remark is introduced.

Remember—The sign of the Paragraph is retained in the Holy Scriptures; but in other compositions the Paragraph is sufficiently indicated by its commencing a new line on the page.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

Remember—In the use of CAPITAL LETTERS we should follow present fashion. We write and print in Capitals,

1. The Pronoun “I” and the Exclamation “O.”
2. The first letter in every separate or independent Sentence.
3. The first letter in every line in Poetry.
4. The first letter in every Proper Noun or Noun personified.
5. The first letter in every name of the Supreme Being.
6. The first letter in every Noun used technically or as a title.

Often an entire word is printed in CAPITALS.

For fuller instructions—with Examples—on this, or on any other topic in Grammar, see “CLARK’S NORMAL GRAMMAR.”

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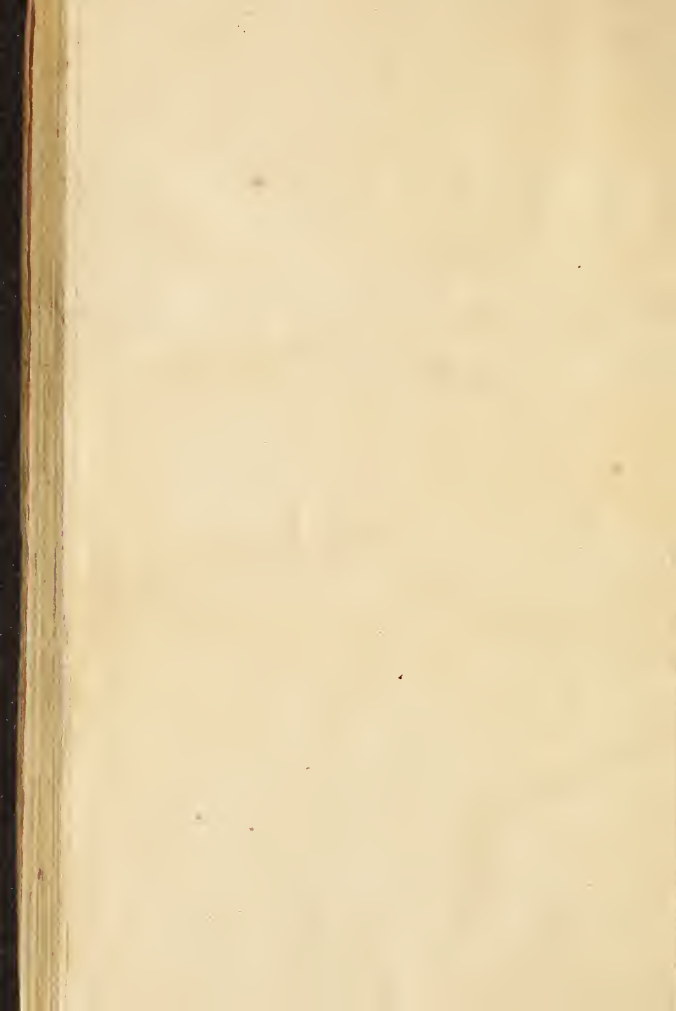
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